

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1879.

The Week.

WE hope the statement of the *Commercial Bulletin* that the celebrated Silas B. Dutcher has obtained a month's leave of absence from Secretary Sherman "to stump the State for A. B. Cornell" is not true. If it were, it would indicate that Secretary Sherman had taken an amount equal to one month of Dutcher's salary out of the Treasury for electioneering purposes without warrant of law. It would, too, be a substantial violation of the civil-service order, and it would not be "civil-service reform." It would, moreover, fully justify a Democratic President in dismissing Dutcher when he came into office, and putting a man into his place who would stump the State for the Democrats. For these and many other reasons we cannot help believing that the *Bulletin* has been imposed on by one of Dutcher's enemies.

Harper's Weekly has at last recommended the scratching of the Republican ticket as the best means of defeating the Machine and saving the convention of next year from being managed by Conkling. In doing so it furnishes some striking evidence of the depth of the dissatisfaction felt by Republicans throughout the State over the doings of the Machine at Saratoga. We must now hope the *Times* and *Evening Post* will follow its example. The *Times* will have the less hesitation in doing so as it has notoriously lost the organship, which has passed to the *Tribune*. Mr. Cornell himself has accepted his nomination in a letter which has attracted the admiration of the Organ by its "modesty." But he could not help being modest; he has nothing to boast of that would bear the light. You surely would not have him tell the voters that during the past ten years he had controlled so many hundred primaries, laid so many miles of "pipe," pulled so many dozens of "wires"; had done so many days of log-rolling; had hung his banner so many times on the outer wall, wheeled so many times into line, and presented so many unbroken fronts to the enemy, and had been a true and faithful henchman. And yet it is of these things that his record is made up.

Apropos of all this, let us again call the attention of the Republican malcontents to the fact that the Independent Republican Committee which has initiated the scratching movement has been surprised by the magnitude which the movement has assumed, and needs money to meet the demands on it for ballots and correspondence and other details of organization. Those who are interested in "reform within the party," and wish to see New York appear in the Presidential Convention on the side of good government, and break up the Machine in this State, would do well to send it contributions, however small. Its post-office address is, we repeat, P. O. Box 4295, New York City. The number of scratches necessary to keep Mr. Cornell in his present position of political "runner" for Mr. Conkling are apparently now within reach, if they are properly sought for, in spite of his alliance with Kelly and Tammany, of which there is no sort of doubt. We would suggest to the Committee the propriety of adding the State-Treasurership to their list of blanks. A well-informed correspondent drew attention last week in our columns to incidents in the career of Wendell, the Conkling candidate for this place, which the Committee ought to examine before sending out their ballots.

The extraordinary General Term convened by Governor Robinson has granted the order, application for which we noticed last week, prohibiting Judge Westbrook from proceeding with the

Nichols case, and Nichols will now have to take the usual course of citizens who seek redress for alleged grievances. As this postpones his reinstatement until after the election, if not for ever, Nichols ceases to occupy the prominent position in the public mind which he has lately held, and Tammany will probably take less interest in him as a martyr than it has done as a possible Police Commissioner. Judge Westbrook hastened on Friday to add another string to the Tammany bow, and issued an order summoning the Police Board to show cause why they should not be compelled to appoint the Tammany election inspectors forthwith, and restraining them from appointing any others in their stead until after the determination of the General Term, before which the order was made returnable. The effect of this was to enjoin the Police Board from doing what the Corporation Counsel had instructed them it was their duty to do. They could hardly be expected of their own motion to obey the implication of the order and appoint Tammany inspectors, and as the time for the appointment of inspectors was about to expire, a possible disfranchisement of the entire city was talked about rather wildly. But even Judge Westbrook saw that he had been led into hasty and ill-advised action by Mr. "Tim" Campbell and his friends, and on Saturday modified his order by vacating the injunction part of it. The matter was argued Monday before the General Term, which, of course, denied the application, expressing the opinion that it was the business of the Board to select inspectors, and advising them to make appointments without reference to the claims of any local factions. At the present writing the Republican inspectors and poll clerks have been appointed and half of the Democratic candidates, the latter from the Anti-Tammany list.

The *Times* does not produce or refer to the speech or speeches, or resolution, in which "the South presented in Congress the doctrine on which the theory of secession rested," and in which it declared its purpose once more to attempt the application of this doctrine to the administration of the Government. If the *Times* has no such speeches or resolutions to draw on for authority, it has been guilty in its own calling, for electioneering purposes, of a kind of fraud which is only excusable, if excusable at all, in a Machinist addressing a controlled primary. Leading journalists ought not to do this kind of work for "the party."

Mr. Field has replied to Mr. Tilden's elaborate and artistic "interview" in the *Times*, in a long newspaper letter which contains a little of everything save proof of his original charge that Mr. Tilden "sold him out" in violation of a distinct agreement. This, which Mr. Tilden denies, Mr. Field reiterates, which is perhaps less surprising than the fact that he adduces nothing to substantiate his assertion—nothing which would be valuable evidence in the event of the lawsuit which Mr. Field at first said some third person contemplated, but of which we hear nothing of late. We do not see how it is possible, with every desire of course to have something positively heinous fastened upon Mr. Tilden, to avoid the conclusion that Mr. Field exaggerated the strength of his case in his first statement. It appears now to have been reduced, as he says, to a question of veracity, which "the public must decide by weighing probabilities." Such a decision, he thinks, must be in his favor. "Is it likely," he asks, "that I would undertake a negotiation abroad with the full freedom of my associate to defeat it at home?" The answer to this is that this is just what Mr. Field appears to have done. There seems still an exasperating lack of proof that the "understanding" which Mr. Field speaks of was shared by his "legislative ally"; and the fact that he supposed the contrary is nothing against the wisdom of abandoning the proposed suit for damages, which we may now conclude has been determined upon. The second of the original charges is much better substantiated; Mr. Tilden has very little to say, nothing convincing indeed, in reply to the accusation of

having failed to call upon Mr. Field since the latter's return from Europe. Mr. Field rightly dwells on this charge, which has never been satisfactorily answered. He says that Mr. Tilden not only avoided calling at his house, but that being once in the next room, when "he had but to open the door and walk in," he instead "put on his hat and walked out." He does not "mourn his (Mr. Tilden's) absence," however, and contents himself with having his own opinion of the reasons for it.

There is one feature of the case which would possibly have been overlooked had not Mr. Field pointed it out as plainly as he does, and that is his motives in calling public attention to Mr. Tilden's delinquencies. His friends tell him, he says, that he is making a great fuss over "a very common form of sharp practice," and that "such things are done in Wall Street every day." He retorts to this, with eminent justice: "Yes, but they are not done by a President-elect of the United States," and very properly adds that "no matter by whom they are done" they display a low standard of commercial morality and business honor. Mr. Field thinks they show how "the greed for money has eaten like a dry rot into the very core of our national character," and feels that "it is time the thing was checked." "I mean," he declares, "to do my small part, by God's help, toward checking it." No better way of checking it occurs to him than that of "singling out the most conspicuous instance" of this greed for money that he has ever met. Hence his exposure of "the old humbug of Cipher Alley." What has seemed heretofore like an overflow of indignation at a private wrong now appears to be the performance of a public duty. This is the more creditable to Mr. Field since almost any other man would have been likely to entertain a personal feeling towards a "legislative ally" who had sold him out. His remark that the national standard in respect to the means of money-getting "will never be raised so long as men keep's lent about it," is probably true; but if raising it depends upon speaking one's mind about Mr. Tilden the outlook for the future is bright with hope.

Mr. Tilden's vitality and continued hold of the Democratic Machine are made all the more remarkable by the rapid succession of the misfortunes which overtake his reputation. His refusal to pay the pedigree man in London for "a handsome family tree" until compelled by threats of legal proceedings, as reported by Mr. Field, was a great blunder; so was the disappearance of the books in his railroad suit. Now comes another in his moving for a bill of particulars in his income-tax suit. He said in his affidavit that he was ignorant of the particulars of the claim made against him, and therefore wanted to know what items of his income the Government thinks he concealed. But to this Judge Choate, in denying the motion, made the crushing observation that "he (Mr. Tilden) does not swear that he is ignorant of the particulars of his income during the periods in question." (The Court might have added that if he were, all he had to do was to apply to the *New York Times*.) Therefore the Government could not surprise him on the trial. If they alleged that he had received money which he had not received, contradictory proof could be easily adduced. Disproving as one must do of this old candidate's conduct, one must acknowledge that he bears his load of opprobrium in a very gallant manner, and, though bowed down with iniquity, still gives full work to at least two dozen able-bodied Republican moralists, and nothing but daily exposure seems to be considered sufficient to keep him out of the White House.

Kearney has been twice refused a reception by General Grant on sending up his "card," and that, too, after a Chinese delegation had been respectfully admitted. The Sand Lots hero and his followers and patrons are also in deep trouble over a recent decision by Judge Deady, of the United States Circuit Court in Oregon. Judge Deady decides that the Oregon law which prohibits contractors from employing Chinese on work to be paid

for by a municipality, is unconstitutional; the Burlingame Treaty conferred upon the Chinese the right to a permanent residence here, and this, according to the decision, involves their right to earn a living here, which right is invaded by such legislation as that in question. The new California constitution contains the same prohibition, which accounts for the alarm and indignation at the decision which finds vent in the San Francisco papers. One journal argues that the right to live in a country by no means implies the right to keep one's self alive in the said country, and that Judge Deady is not a good lawyer. He is nevertheless, it should be said, in full sympathy with the opponents of Chinese immigration, though he cannot avoid recognizing perfectly clear distinctions as they seem to require him to do.

A special reporter of the *Chicago Times*, who was sent to Yazoo City to ascertain the facts in regard to the killing of Dixon, has given a long and apparently conscientious account of the murdered man's history. It appears from this that Dixon, who was born in Virginia in 1847, and who ran away to join the Confederate army, arrived in Yazoo early in 1866 as a professional gambler, and presently opened a gambling house, which he gave up only a short time before he ran as independent candidate for sheriff, and on the stairs of which he was lately assassinated. In 1872 or 1873 he openly shot down a negro to whom he owed money. In the political campaign of 1875 he became the head of a body of regulators called "Dixon's Scouts," among whom was Barksdale, and who passed their time in breaking up Republican meetings, terrorizing the colored population, and hanging such of them as were charged with crime or were otherwise obnoxious. One of these victims had \$1,600 on his person, which he begged the "Scouts" to send to his mother in Ohio. Dixon demanded this money of the man to whom it was entrusted, and pretended that he paid it into the Democratic campaign fund, to be used "to stuff the ballot-boxes, if necessary"; but the Democratic Committee denied having received it, and the probability is that Dixon appropriated it for his own advantage. In January, 1876, on the eve of the Democratic return to power through the efforts of the regulators, the county treasurer's safe was robbed of \$50,000, an act of which the outgoing treasurer could not be accused, for he had handed over his accounts, but which was publicly fastened upon Dixon by a fellow-gambler named Harrison. This led to frequent encounters between the two men, until Dixon had killed his accuser. He was tried, but was acquitted and escorted home with a brass band. Barksdale at this time was deputy-sheriff, and during the imprisonment an enmity arose between them which culminated in Dixon's death. Barksdale is said to have shot him not because he was trying as a negro candidate to divide his party, but because he had made the grossest and filthiest attacks on the character of his mother and sister. It appears, however, that Dixon was getting to be regarded as too dangerous a man to be tolerated any longer, and that there was some concert in his taking off. In spite of his many atrocities the negroes eagerly followed him as a political leader, and it is plain that the power of such a man in the community, with such a constituency, was as much to be dreaded as if he had been a Northern carpet-bagger.

During the week \$8,577,000 more foreign specie arrived at New York, of which all except \$720,000 consisted of gold. This brings the total specie imports since the resumption of specie payments up to \$39,700,000, all of which, except about \$4,500,000, has arrived since the first day of August, or during the months of August and September. The demand for currency on the New York banks from the interior has been very large; and during the week the banks which owed the Government for 4 per cent. bonds made their final settlements, so that with all the gold arriving the reserve of the banks was reduced. As the Treasury has drawn all the money from the banks which it can on account of 4 per cents., and as it has a fund of twenty-odd millions to pay out for called bonds as they are presented, and about \$8,000,000 for October interest, the Treasury movements will help the money market during the remainder of the

year. All departments of trade are very active, but the healthful improvement in legitimate enterprises is endangered by the unwholesome and wild speculation at the Stock Exchange. Even the coal stocks and Erie have become respectable beside some of the new "fancies." Silver bullion in London ruled at 51½*d.* to 51¾*d.* The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar here was \$0.8662.

The elections for direct electors to choose deputies to the Prussian Diet took place on Tuesday last, with a result, so far as is known at this writing, decidedly adverse to the Chancellor's pretensions. There are three parties in the field: the Conservatives, who are supporting Bismarck, and who maintain under his guidance that the issue is economical reform and the possession of the railroads by the Government; the National Liberals, who maintain that it is the preservation and development of parliamentary institutions, now threatened by the Chancellor; and the Ultramontanes, who maintain that it is the liberty of the Church. The last have been thrown into a state of great excitement by the formal announcement through the semi-official paper that all stories of negotiations between the Government and the Pope are false; that the nuncio, Roncetti, was never authorized to open any such negotiations, and has never opened them. Moreover, the new Minister of Worship has just returned an answer to the petition of the clergy of the dioceses of Münster and Paderborn which shows that Herr Puttkammer is not a whit more pliable than Dr. Falk. The petition claimed for the Catholic prelates the right of participating in the organization and inspection of the schools, and asked that the ordinances now depriving them of that right might be abrogated, and the exclusive state inspection and control modified. The Minister replies that the act they complain of is simply a new expression of what has always been the Prussian law, and that the situation is of their own creating, and that no change of any kind will be made. The *Germania*, the Ultramontane organ, therefore denounces him as Falk with a new name. But the Socialists have elected two members in Saxony, which is a severe blow to the Chancellor, and has made some sensation throughout the country.

The *Germania* also meets the National-Liberal cry for "war against Rome" by declaring that the real danger to Germany comes from the growing numbers and influence of the Jews, and makes four capital charges against them: (1) That they are appropriating an amount of the public fortune out of all proportion to the services they render to society, and make their money either without labor, or by very light labor, or by trickery; (2) that they mix themselves up in Christian quarrels for the purpose of rendering them more bitter, and attack Christianity itself; (3) that they labor systematically for the corruption of the Christian world by their sensational press, their immoral novels, and their indecent engravings; (4) that in all the political movements of the day they are among the most radical and revolutionary, and wage bitter war against all that is legitimate, historical, and Christian in the national life, and promote all upturnings, knowing that Judaism has always flourished on ruins. The Liberal papers make fun of this, but all acknowledge that Jews are taking possession more completely every day of the press, the finances and trade of the Empire, and playing a more and more prominent part in all fields of national activity. The returns show that the attendance of the Jewish youth in the secondary schools and universities is larger by far in proportion to their numbers than that of the youth of any other sect. The Rumanians, who are making desperate attempts to avoid literal compliance with the clause of the Treaty of Berlin which directs them to emancipate the Jews, have drawn attention to the Coney Island and Saratoga demonstration against them in this country as proof that the Jews are increasing in America to "an alarming degree." Nothing would do more to drown this prejudice than a movement among the Jews towards agriculture, but of this there is no sign. We doubt if a Jewish farmer can be found in either hemisphere. For their wonderful success in all other pur-

suits there seems to be only one remedy, and that is the slaughter of all Jewish children.

The conflict between the Opposition and the Ministry with regard to the Jews in Rumania continues. The Ministry wish to comply with the requirements of the Treaty of Berlin by naturalizing all really resident Jews, or "naturalizing by catégories," as it is called, while the Opposition are only willing to naturalize select Jews by name. In Wallachia, where the Jews are mostly descendants of Spanish and Portuguese refugees, born and bred in the country, the question gives little trouble. In Moldavia, on the other hand, the Jews are mostly emigrants from Poland and Russia, and so numerous that they are said to make 75 per cent. of the population of Jassy, the capital. The Opposition maintain that the only bad consequence of refusal will be non-recognition of the Principality as an independent state by the Powers, and for this they do not care; but the Ministry fear that if there should be another outbreak of the Eastern Question the country might suffer in the settlement for its recalcitrancy.

The conflict between the Government and the clergy over the management of the public schools in Belgium grows more bitter. The bishops had already directed the priests to refuse absolution to the teachers of the primary schools, and to both teachers and students in the normal schools. They have now gone a step further and applied the prohibition to the parents of the children in the primary schools. These schools under the law of 1879 differ in no respect from those of this State, except in making more distinct recognition of religion. A place and hour are provided in them during which the clergy may give religious instruction to the children of their own denomination. If the clergy refuse, the teacher may, if he pleases, give children the elementary religious instruction prescribed for the purpose by their respective denominations, in the catechisms, if the parents desire it. But the Catholic clergy actually insist on having the appointment and dismissal of the teachers, the inspection and control of the instruction, and the provision of the books, and in default of this threaten every adult person connected with state education with eternal damnation.

A correspondent who knows what he is talking about discusses elsewhere the military aspect of the Afghan problem. The newspapers brought out by the last mails from England are full of its political bearings. The Liberals are trampling on their fallen foe by reproducing the past deliverances of the members of the Cabinet on the "Imperial policy," and in these, of course, Lord Salisbury cuts the worst figure. His despatch to Lord Northbrook, urging him to impose on the Amir by inventing an excuse for sending to Kabul an ostensibly temporary mission, to be subsequently converted into a permanent one, is—now that the Ministers have been guilty of so much other falsehood and evasion—curious reading. Lord Northbrook indignantly refused, and he was replaced by a showy novelist who knew nothing of the East. Lord Beaconsfield's contemptuous reply to Lord Lawrence, too, when the latter as chairman of the Afghan Committee sought an interview with him, is reproduced with damning effect; and so is Mr. Gladstone's solemn warning as to the probable fate of the embassy uttered in full debate. The French press is rubbing the poison in with its sarcasms. One paper, alluding to the rôle which two "second-rate novelists" (Lord Beaconsfield and Lytton) have played in the catastrophe, asks whether, if the Tory Cabinet should be reconstructed, "Ouida" and Miss Braddon would have places in it. Luckily for the Ministers Parliament is not sitting. The news from Afghanistan shows that every exertion is being made to occupy Kabul; but then all the world knows that this will not be the end of the trouble, but the beginning of it. The Amir has come into the camp with a small escort, which is a confession that he has lost whatever power he ever had. Behind this dismal collapse of the Imperial policy there is the growing distress, both agricultural and manufacturing, which must tell seriously on the revenue during the current year.

THE PARTY OF DISCONTENT.

THE fact that after a canvass of extraordinary vigor, aided by returning business prosperity and the apparently complete success of resumption, the Republicans of Maine were able to make no impression on the Greenback vote and came near losing the State, has a good deal of significance. So also has the fact that Butler, who last year with a very feeble organization came near equally dividing the vote of the State with the Republicans of Massachusetts, has this year returned to the charge, supported by some prominent Republican politicians who are noted for their love of being on the winning side, and has in his platform avoided all mention of national issues. In other words, he proposes to fight simply on economical questions and questions of local government, and he evidently believes that he will lose nothing by refusing to manifest any interest in the subject of "State rights," which was last winter the latest political "fancy" in Washington. In New York, although the Republican platform as drawn up at Saratoga was full of Washington troubles, and the Democratic platform had a fair allowance of them, both the candidates have avoided all mention of them in their letters of acceptance. No one would suppose from either Mr. Robinson's letter or Mr. Cornell's that the coming election was likely to determine the position of the State next year in a deadly conflict with the South over the very questions which brought on the war, as the Washington politicians would fain have us believe. Mr. Wheeler made a vehement "bloody-shirt" speech at the Republican Convention, but we believe it is undeniable that it was listened to with undisguised weariness. In California the Republicans have carried the State, but not in sufficient force to prevent Kearney's party from getting possession of the municipal government of San Francisco, and two out of the three railroad commissioners, who wield very great power under the new constitution. Whether the Republicans would have done so well if their opponents had not been split into so many sections—there were five State tickets in the field—is more than doubtful.

To appreciate all this correctly, it must not be forgotten that the elections which are occurring this year are the last before the meeting of the Presidential conventions, and their result is naturally regarded with extraordinary interest on account of the influence it is likely to have on the public mind in the intervening months, as well as on account of the indication it will afford as to the probable relative strength of parties a year hence. It must also be borne in mind that the Republican platforms and orators have generally evaded the remaining difficulty of the financial situation by treating gold and silver as of equal value and as likely to remain so—there being actually a difference of fourteen or fifteen per cent. between them—and by ignoring the fact that the redeemed greenbacks are reissued or held for reissue. Mr. Sherman, who is franker on this subject than most other speakers, endeavored to dispose of it in Maine by holding out the hope that we should before long have a bi-metallic convention with European nations, which would relieve us of our load of silver; but we verily believe that there is little foundation for this hope beyond a conversation of Prince Bismarck with Mr. W. D. Kelley, in which Bismarck, probably perceiving the mental condition of the person he was dealing with, served out to him the kind of talk he thought would be most likely to please and excite him.

All this—and we might, if we had the space, add a great deal to it—does not support the theory that the Greenback movement is dying out under the influence of specie payments and returning prosperity. The desire that the Government should not redeem the greenbacks, or that it should make fresh issues of irredeemable paper, probably is declining; but the Greenback movement does not depend on this solely. What it covers and represents is not simply a particular financial heresy, but a loss of interest in the questions by which the two great parties have been divided since 1856; an unwillingness to accept the new issues got up in Congress between the Brigadiers and the Stalwarts; and, finally, a widespread desire to discover some mode of improving the condition of the working

classes, including the struggling farmers, through legislation. In fact, the name Greenbacker is a mere accident. The discontent may next year take another name, but it will continue. Many Republicans seem to take comfort in the fact that it now and then, as in Massachusetts and Maine, swallows up the Democratic party; but we do not see how this mends matters. The 110,000 who voted for Butler last year have to be met and overcome under the name of Butlerites as well as under the name of Democrats. They differ from Democrats simply in refusing to take any interest in the Southern question and thus present one issue on which they could be fought and beaten; but they are for this reason none the less formidable or difficult to deal with.

It would, in fact, appear as if Mr. Sherman's opinion, uttered in Ohio, that the great State-rights contention in Congress is "infinitely more important than money or bonds, or property in silver and gold" (in Maine he put "labor" on the list), is by no means shared by a large and increasing number of voters. The truth is that in this country, as in all countries in our time, questions of labor, of property, and of money underlie all other questions, and, though often kept temporarily in abeyance by the sudden and overpowering excitements arising out of foreign quarrels or quarrels over the seat of the sovereignty, such as the late rebellion, they form the deepest and most permanent interest of the bulk of the population. They furnish the source of industry, the raw material of morality, and the most powerful governing motives of the lives of the great mass of men; and any party which tries to ignore them, or which puts them for a long period in a secondary position, is sure to suffer for it. They are pushing their way to the front in the politics of all civilized countries, in spite of the efforts of kings, and princes, and chancellors, and managers to keep them out of sight. They are at this moment the impending questions of the politics of this country.

How closely and in what troublesome forms they are likely to press on us has been set out in the last number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, by the very able writer who has been during the last year contributing to that periodical a remarkable series of articles on the mental and moral condition of the working classes. His description of the views about the sphere of government which are making their way among the workingmen, and which are preached by the "sincere demagogues" who lead them, are worthy of the attentive perusal of all who desire to know the nature of the problems which American political parties will be called on to solve during the next fifty years. They are problems, too, which we shall not be able to deal with from afar, with the aid of "troops," collectors, and United States marshals, like the Southern question, but which every man will have to solve at his own door and in his own farm or store. That article not only goes far to explain the persistence of the Greenback movement, and the Butler movement, but prepares us for the appearance of others of like nature, possessing more coherence and a better organization. It explains, too, the growing difficulty of keeping people in Maine and Massachusetts, who have a hard struggle to get bread and education for their children, in a fever-heat of excitement because the civilization of South Carolina is still low, and because human life in Mississippi is less sacred than in New York and Ohio. It does, however, more than this. It indicates very clearly that any party which, like the Republican party, boasts that it contains the conservative intelligence of the country, and assumes the responsibility of maintaining and defending the existing social order, must devise for this purpose some better instrumentality than electing a dictator or keeping alive the dying embers of bloody strife. It must go back to the spirit as well as to the agencies of its early days, and begin the slow and perhaps dull process of educating the discontented masses, both Southern and Northern, into sound economic and social ideas, as it once educated them into hatred of slavery, by the lectures and speeches and books of men who love the party as the early Republicans loved it; not as the means of getting so many offices for so many "workers," but as the means of making the popular morality a sure and lasting foundation for rational political liberty.

THE FISHERIES QUESTION.

IT was hoped that the Halifax Commission and the enormous sum which we paid as its award had settled all disputes about the fisheries in Canadian waters for some years at least. But we now have the strange spectacle of our fishermen, who were supposed to be vitally interested in the right to fish inshore, memorializing the Government to abrogate the Treaty, our Government negotiating to surrender privileges for which we have paid five and a half millions, and the Government of Great Britain reluctant to do away with provisions which it had contended were detrimental to it to the extent of more than a million dollars a year. The causes of this anomalous condition of things are not hard to find.

In the first place, the local governments of the Dominion have statutes, to which, they maintain, fishermen from the United States as well as their own subjects are bound to conform, of a nature to impair greatly the value of our treaty rights. These laws prohibit seining herring or squid, which are the principal bait for cod, between the middle of October and the middle of April, making a close season of six months, during which the only way in which bait can be obtained is by the slow process of jigging or by purchase. Fishing for squid or herring on Sunday is also prohibited. There are also onerous restrictions as to the kind of seines to be used and the manner of using them. The superintendent of Canadian fisheries has issued a circular in which he interprets a provision against throwing overboard offal and dead fish as prohibiting seining for mackerel. The Government of Great Britain, in answer to remonstrances by our Government, say that they claim that aliens and subjects alike should obey the local laws of the jurisdiction within which they find themselves, but that "if a local law has been inadvertently passed which is in any degree or respect at variance with the rights conferred on a foreign Power by the Treaty, the correction of the mistake committed, at the earliest period that its existence shall have been ascertained and recognized, is a matter of international obligation." Meanwhile the laws stand, and our fishermen, though instructed that our Government does not consider them bound by those laws and will sustain them in their violation, not unnaturally are unwilling to risk the loss of their vessel and catch for the chance of reparation at some distant day, even if they were not forcibly prevented from fishing against the laws, as has been the case in two instances at least. A claim for \$103,000 has been made against Great Britain for the trouble at Fortune Bay a year and a half ago. The natives of Newfoundland make a very good profit on the bait which they sell to our cod-fishermen, which may account for the violence of their indignation when their laws are broken.

Another reason why our fishermen are anxious for the Treaty to come to an end is because they, having expensive outfits and being obliged to go a long way from home, are unable, without a protective tariff, to compete in the markets with the fishermen of the Dominion, who go out for a day at a time in their small boats and are engaged in farming at other times. The result is shown in the diminished number of our mackerel fleet in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, there being said to have been not more than forty or fifty there this summer, as against about two hundred and fifty in 1873, and one hundred and sixty in 1874. With a duty which was almost, if not entirely, prohibitory before the Treaty, mackerel-fishing was barely profitable, and with free competition with the cheap labor and outfit of the Canadians it has ceased to be so at all. Probably less than a third of all the mackerel caught by our fishermen are taken in the grounds gained by the Treaty, and for the privilege of taking these few they are exposed to disastrous competition.

On the other hand the Canadians want reciprocity, of all things. Their market is this country, and if cut off from that they are crippled. When there was a heavy duty on fish they found it almost useless to try to compete, and many of their fishermen sailed in American bottoms to avoid the duties. Though by the present Treaty they have reciprocity only in fish and fish-oils, and though they not unnaturally feel aggrieved that this Government refuses to

recognize cod-liver oil as a fish-oil (on the ground of its having been treated medicinally), and that a heavy duty has been imposed on the tin cans in which the fish are packed, still they know they cannot afford to lose even this limited reciprocity under which their fishing interests are reviving.

In this condition of things—when those supposed to be benefited by a treaty seek its abrogation, and those injured by it insist on its continuance—it is hard to suggest any remedy. Our Government has had a vessel with Commissioners in Canadian waters the last summer to collect facts to aid in negotiations with Great Britain. This Commission has not yet reported, and the result of its investigations is not known. If the Treaty is abrogated we are at once thrown back on the continual quarrels and complaints, on the one hand of infringements by our fishermen within the three-mile line, and on the other of illegal seizures and harassing searches and detention. These disputes must exist wherever we are excluded from fishing within an imaginary line, whose whereabouts must, in the very nature of things, be practically determined by a guess. And the guess of a Gloucester skipper is likely to be very different from that of the captain of a British cruiser. We cannot be free from trouble unless we have the right to fish inshore, and this right Great Britain will certainly not concede for a less return than she now gets under the Treaty. But what is meant by the right to fish inshore—whether it means for the whole year or for such part as the wisdom of the local legislature may decree, whether by such means and with such implements as are most suitable or with such as the local legislature shall allow—must be fully agreed by the Governments of the two countries. If we are carefully protected by mutual agreements in these matters, the provisions of the present Treaty seem as fair to both sides as any that can be devised.

VIOLETT-LE-DUC.

THE extraordinary popularity in this country of some of the works of Eugène Emmanuel Viollet-le-Duc is a sufficient reason for devoting to his life and labors an amount of space which our American journals seldom find it convenient to give to a writer in another tongue than the English. Born in 1814, Viollet-le-Duc was well launched on the sea of study and research, for his family counts many names not unknown in literature and art. His father, who lived until 1859, was peculiarly a student of early French literature; and his uncle was E. J. Delécluse, a voluminous and valued critic and historian, who was called "le doyen des critiques français" when he died in 1863. Eugène, however, must have taken to his own especial task very early in life. It was at the age of twenty-six that he was employed on the Paris Sainte-Chapelle under the direction of others, and as director-in-chief of the elaborate and long-continued works of restoration and almost rebuilding of the nearly ruined abbey-church of Vézelay. He had previously prepared himself for practical work by extended journeys, and by an amount of labor and study in the presence of the monuments of Italy, Sicily, South Germany, and above all of France, of which we can best judge from the really amazing results embodied in books published long afterwards. Nor was his work merely preparation for the future; in Gailhabaud's *Monuments Anciens et Modernes*, the monograph on the Campanile of Giotto is by him, we remember, and probably others are as well. From about 1836, for a number of years, he exhibited frequently at the Salon elaborate drawings of ancient buildings, as he found them, and as conjecturally restored. He taught at the École de Dessin until about 1845, and contributed freely to periodicals, while continually new architectural work was entrusted to him, generally in the form of repair, restoration, and completion of cathedrals and other edifices of the Middle Ages. During his first ten years of active work he was employed by the Ministry of the Interior upon public works at a dozen cities at once, especially at Carcassonne, at Sens, and at Amiens. In 1846 he was architect of the Abbey of St. Denis, and about the same time he was employed with Lassus, who soon after died and left him alone in charge upon the Cathedral of Paris, Notre Dame, where an amount of work was done difficult to conceive in view of the building as it stands to-day, and only to be partly estimated by comparing with it the photographs and drawings of forty years ago.

Viollet-le-Duc was set down by his contemporaries as wholly devoted

to mediæval art and building, as was natural from his early appearance as an advocate of the careful preservation and study of Romanesque and Gothic buildings. The interest in these forms of art was as strong in France as in England in those early days, and far more intelligent, though it led to no well-marked "Gothic Revival" in modern building. As the champion of mediævalism as a correlative study, too important to banish completely, as the Academic mind thought right, Viollet-le-Duc became a partisan perforce. No reader of his books needs to be told that he would have advocated just as eagerly the study of Greek art or of Roman building, had it been one of these which the Paris *écoles* and *ateliers* insisted on ignoring. But it was his mission to speak for the forgotten past of France, and he spoke for it and worked at its rehabilitation with an energy and a skill that put him at the head of his associates. The year 1854 or 1855 saw the completion of the first volume of his 'Dictionary of French Architecture from the Eleventh to the Sixteenth Centuries,' a book in ten volumes, which took ten years to complete. 1858 was marked by the first volume of the 'Dictionary of French *Mobilier* [a word easier to convey than to translate] from the Carolingian Epoch to the Renaissance'; but this book was not completed until long afterward—after the French and German war, and great changes in our author's position in life. A host of pamphlets belong to the years 1856-1864, many of them afterward incorporated into his great works, but some of them more temporary in their nature, and nearly related to almost the only failure in Viollet-le-Duc's career.

He was closely allied to the Napoleonic court. The Minister of Fine Arts, a certain Count de Nieuwerkerke, of Dutch family, a sculptor of some reputation, who had come to the front during the Republic of 1848, seems to have had unbounded respect for him, and the immediate household of the Emperor is reported to have looked to him for advice and aid in their artistical vagaries—from decorations for fêtes to the collecting of works of art. In the autumn of 1863 a decree of the Emperor ordered certain important changes in the organization and system of the *École des Beaux-Arts*, the most marked one being an apparent substitution of the direct will of the Ministry for the influence of the Academy of Fine Arts in the guidance of the School. Five days afterwards the nominations appeared to the new offices. The director was to be Robert-Fleury, a painter of the old school; the three professors of painting were Pils, Cabanel, and Gérôme; the professor of engraving was Henriquel-Dupont, engraver of Delaroche's "Hemicycle"; the other professors were well-known men, and the chair of *Æsthetics* and the History of Art was filled by Viollet-le-Duc. The greater part of the new system was destined to be permanent; but in the case of Viollet-le-Duc the rebellion of routine, old tradition, exclusiveness, and *esprit de corps* was too strong for him to subdue, and, after a scandalous uproar and a violent controversy in scores of journals, he resigned his chair, to which was appointed soon after a very different person—a writer of whom no one was jealous, an "available" candidate, as we should phrase it in America—M. Taine. Another result was, if we do not read amiss some undated prefaces and notes, the series of 'Entretiens sur l'Architecture,' a very important work, of which one-half has been translated into English by Mr. Van Brunt and published in Boston. These lectures seem to be what he would have delivered to his pupils, had they been willing to listen.

Vapereau's Dictionary, from which we have taken a date or two, says, by way of summing up, "Artiste ou Écrivain, il montre partout une sympathie exclusive pour le Moyen Âge." It is amusing to read this sentence just after the list of his exhibited water-color drawings of ancient buildings; but there is truth in almost all assertions—truth or the shadow of truth. As "artiste"—that is, as practising architect—nineteenths of Viollet-le-Duc's work was in connection with cathedrals, fortresses, abbeys, and civic buildings, the slender remains, in France, of the Romanesque and Gothic ages. The other tenth we ask no one to admire. Skill and boldness in planning are not strange or rare among French architects, and a daring employment of new styles of design is not admirable unless the result is fine. It is hardly worth while to speak of his different designs, or of the books in which they can be found; for there is, we think, little disagreement among students as to their character. Intelligence there is in them, resource, dexterity, but scarcely a spark of genius, scarcely any evidence of power of artistic design. We name only, as an instance of the most complete failure when a great chance was given, the color-decoration of the chapels of Notre Dame, published in an accessible volume by M. Ouradou. The evidences of study of Gothic art appear in all the designs of our author, but seldom predominate in them. He might be called a very modern, a very realis-

tic designer, taking his good where he found it, except that his designs are really of no great value.

His mission was to instruct, to criticise, to build up a whole system of study, and to set an example of constant, intelligent, and uninterrupted labor. His books are extraordinarily new, underived; they are the result of his own investigations. The great dictionary by which he is best known contains in its first volume the threefold essay "Architecture," civic, ecclesiastical, and military—three hundred and fifty pages long, or a volume in itself. This is succeeded, enlarged, supported, and verified by an essay nearly as long on Construction, in the fourth volume. Separate papers under different headings develop, as we go down the alphabet, the important parts of the study. Thus, by the time V is reached, there is a great deal to say, under "Voûte," about Roman, Romanesque, and Gothic vaulting which had not been said before. Now, of all this mass of fact, and of explanatory theory deduced from fact, there is scarcely a line that is not our author's own—the measurements and the knowledge of buildings are of his own getting, the conclusions are of his own drawing. Occasionally he refers his reader to another book than one of his own, but it is when M. Verneilh or M. Amé, or MM. Verdier and Cattois, have published drawings so accurate and complete of some building or detail that he thinks it unnecessary to give his own. The frequent use of pictures taken from ancient manuscripts and of passages from early French literature, which every reader will notice, may be the result of the aid of others; it is not impossible that secretaries and amanuenses have found and copied the latter and have hunted up the former for the author himself to copy. Moreover, his all-knowingness in mineralogy and in branches of mechanical science not necessary to an architect, such as dynamics, leads one to suppose skill in eliciting from specialists what he needed of their specialties. But the chief part of his varied knowledge is his own. It is true that he enjoyed extraordinary opportunities. He knew Gothic vaulting by heart; but then he had had to take down and rebuild Gothic vaults of all the epochs. He has been called the discoverer of the forgotten system of defence adopted in the fortresses of the later Middle Ages; but then he had been employed for years, and at good salaries, to rebuild Coucy and Pierrefonds, and the walls of Carcassonne. He gives us drawings of mangonels and balistas which, as he says, would really work and be formidable if they were constructed, instead of the absurd impossibilities of various iconographic works of our fathers. But, then, the Emperor had paid the cost of actually setting up one or more of them, for it had been his specialty, ever since he was Prince Louis, to study the history of artillery in all ages. In all these treatises, though Gothic art is his special subject in most of them, the taste of Viollet-le-Duc is generally catholic, and his power of discrimination active, and, indeed, his most marked characteristic. In the 'Entretiens' his subject is the architecture of all ages, and certainly in that treatise the analysis of each style and the comparison between styles is critical in the highest acceptation of that term. Oddly enough, the only exception, as it seems to us, is in the case of one of the Gothic styles: in his earlier volumes he is completely at sea about Italian-Gothic, missing in it what he especially admired in French work, and failing to see its one peculiar charm. In later essays we think he means to make amends for this error.

As for the immense number of illustrations which crowd his thirty volumes and pamphlets, it seems to be established that they are all his own—those which we have in wood-cut drawn with his own hand, the others engraved or lithographed directly from his drawings. All his life he lived "pencil in hand"; everything he saw he made a drawing of, and his drawings he always knew where to find and how to make use of. We shall be told here that his drawings of sculptural detail and of *meubles*, such as furniture and stuffs, are not accurate. It is true. Photographic exactness, such as Jules Jacquemart knows how to give when his subject admits of it, Viollet-le-Duc disregards. A curious instance of it has been pointed out; the two "chaires" given in the great 'Dictionary' as remaining in the cathedrals of Augsburg and Avignon are also given by Mr. Waring in his folio of etchings, and no one need doubt which is the more nearly correct of the two ways of reproducing them. We are inclined to regard this mannerism in representation as a necessary condition of doing such an amount of work. A swift and powerful draughtsman, profoundly impressed with his subject, may perhaps be allowed to put down his impression of a decorative object in twenty minutes rather than to give a longer time to careful elaboration. Exactness is dear to us. Whoever will bring out a new edition of the 'Dictionary' with photographic additions will render a great service. But we take what we can get out of a man who must die at sixty-five, and in this case are very thankful for it.

SOCIAL-DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, September 8, 1879.

NEVER before has the hope of immediate political gains been so great as at present among the Social-Democrats. The election of Hasenclever at Breslau; the funeral of young Geib at Hamburg, where forty thousand Socialists marched to his grave, and especially the fact that the moderate wing has now chief control, have awakened confidence and activity. The Exceptional Law has acted most strongly against the immoderate wing; it has cleansed the party both from the faint-hearted and the insurrectionists; and Most, who has fled to London and is now publishing there his little sheet, characteristically printed in red ink, is now accused by the leading Socialists of being the tool of Bismarck. The opinions of Karl Marx, of London, the master-Socialist, have now full sway, while the general knowledge that his disciples, Liebknecht and Bebel, possess power as well as moderation, has allayed the fears of the middle classes.

It may be well here to give the present leading tenets of the Socialists, which I am enabled to do from long talks with Marx and Liebknecht. They hold that the industry of the world is ever tending towards a grander scale; that large industries are rapidly swallowing the smaller; that capital is passing ever into fewer hands; and that a time must come when the industry of each country will be controlled by a few persons. Then, and then only, the people will step forward and claim that to them—to the state—belongs all capital, and they will carry on all industries by democratic control. But before the state can govern industry centralization must immensely develop, and as this can only be accomplished by the concentration of wealth in a few hands, the bourgeoisie are but the necessary instruments for reaching a condition where Socialism is possible. Consequently there is no desire among Socialists to hinder the growth of the capitalists; the faster that growth the faster the approach of Socialism. They confess that in the present non-centralized condition of industry any attempt at state control would be futile and ruinous. But, while they are willing to let centralization take its course, it is their desire that the people shall so advance in education and independence as to be able at the proper time to control all industry. For the present, therefore, placing Socialism in the background, they aim only at the moral and intellectual improvement of the masses; and in their demand for a responsible government, for the reduction of the army, and for the abolition of indirect taxes, they differ in no respect from the advanced Liberals. Their demand for the state control of the sanitary condition of factories and workmen's dwellings is the only Socialistic tenet at present advanced. They are, according to their own statement, Democrats first and Socialists afterwards. Their Socialism depends entirely on industrial changes; and should experience show that capital is not tending towards fewer hands, then they are no longer Socialists. For the present, and even for generations, they are content to be only Democrats, and to let experience show them the proper course.

The expounding of the above opinions, combined with the general knowledge that had the Socialist leaders said the word they could for the moment have seized Berlin, Saxony, and Hamburg, has created among the Liberals a better feeling towards the Socialists. "By thus refraining," said Liebknecht to me, "we have shown that we are the party of peace and the Government the party of discord." It is this kind feeling of the Liberals that the Socialists are now striving for. The latter easily see that under the military rule of Bismarck there is no hope of propagating their Socialistic tenets, as their writings will be suppressed and they themselves imprisoned. Their first desideratum is liberty of speech and of the press. But this can only come through the help of the independent bourgeoisie, and as the Socialist leaders are thoroughly convinced that in a few years the bourgeoisie will make a revolution for such liberty, they are determined to unite with their former enemies, or rather bring them over to their own party. For the Socialist leaders assert that they alone have been consistent in their opposition to Bismarck, and, as the Liberals are now forced into the same policy, they must necessarily join the Socialists. These expectations, however, are far too sanguine, since the probable adoption by the Liberals of the Socialist stand of uncompromising opposition to Bismarck by no means implies their adoption of the Socialists as leaders, both on account of the superior numbers of the former and the social prejudices against the latter. Again, it is noteworthy that while all the Socialist leaders agree that the centralization of wealth is the necessary precedent to Socialism, the rich are nevertheless hated by both leaders and the ranks, and this must prevent a close union between them and the bourgeoisie. Still, it cannot be denied that the Social-Democrats have

made, and will make, considerable gains among the middle classes, and such is the general confidence of the leaders that I have been informed, by those best capable of judging, that should a dissolution now occur in the Reichstag the number of Socialist members would be more than doubled.

The final victory of those advocating the Marx idea of letting industrial evolution take its course must have great effect on a party whose members obey so implicitly the commands of their leaders. There is much difference of opinion among the Social-Democrats, on account of the crude and undigested nature of their views, but seldom is there a lack of harmony in their action. The masses of the party have at last risen against the military system and have some independence, but a German independence only; centuries of hard discipline cannot be effaced in a decade, and the ranks of the Socialists march to the command of their leaders, like well-drilled and docile soldiers. The Marx idea, then, must drive all thoughts of immediate Socialistic attempts from the minds of the masses for years, and in the meantime improvement in trade and changes in industry may still further postpone pure Socialism.

The suppressive measures are still active, and in Dresden several young men have recently been imprisoned on account of their newspaper articles. Imprisonment in Saxony is by no means to be dreaded, as the privilege of books and writing materials furnishes the opportunity for a few months of quiet work. But in Prussia neither books nor writing materials are allowed. The letters of the Socialists are still opened by Government officials, and their houses are often searched. Their journals also have suffered; the circulation of the *Social-Demokrat*, their leading organ, of which Liebknecht is editor and which is now published under another name, has been reduced two-thirds, and this is a fair example. To counteract this, however, measures have been recently started for organizing a paper called the *Social-Demokrat* in Switzerland, and for sending the papers into Germany in sealed envelopes. Against this the Exceptional Law, which in its nature is more repressive than punitive, has no power.

In spite of the strictness of the police, party organization and electioneering have gone on among the Social-Democrats, who often poll votes of a magnitude surprising to their opponents. A good example is at Plauitz, in Saxony, where an election for the Saxon Landtag is to occur in a few days. So sure are the Conservatives of returning their candidate that recently their leading organ congratulated its readers on the prospect of a non-contested election. The Socialists, however, have been working in secret and are confident of success.* A meeting, also secret, was recently held in Plauitz, when Herr Puttrich, the Socialist candidate, gave his address. It differed from the Liberal platform only in advocating the abolition of the Saxon Senate and in promising reforms in the *Knappschaftskassen*, or mutual insurance fund for miners. This is of very ancient origin, and has long been established by law in every iron and coal mine in Germany. A certain portion of each miner's wages is reserved for this fund, while the employer must also contribute a sum not less than half the total payment by the laborers. From this fund a weekly allowance is paid to the laborer when injured, or to his widow on his death. The miners allege, however, that they have no voice either in the distribution or investment of the funds, which have been long mismanaged; and that, as never more than one-half the entire fund need be distributed, the employer, having the other half in his business, pays far less than the miners. Again, dismissal, which is in the power of the employer, deprives the miner of the benefit. The miners, therefore, demand a change of the law, and as Herr Puttrich's supporters would be mostly miners, he promised in his address such a change. The miners throughout Saxony are nearly all Social-Democrats, and are being rapidly banded together in trade-unions, both in order to unite politically and to oppose the masters. In fact, the present system of organization with the Social-Democrats in Germany is fast approaching a system of trade-unions in all departments of industry.

EGYPTIAN FINANCES.

CAIRO, September 8, 1879.

GORDON PASHA, the Governor-General of the Sudan, arrived here in the latter part of August after a rapid journey via the Nile from Khartum. Gordon was only twenty-three days en route between Khartum and Cairo, and brought to the Khedive the welcome news that the revolts of the slave-traders in Darfur and the Bahr-el-Gazal Provinces have been at length quelled by Gordon's lieutenant, Gessi Pasha. The crushing of this rebellion, however, involved a ten months' campaign with eleven

* They have, in fact, succeeded.—ED. NATION.

thousand men, and has made *saï havoe* with the Sudan finances, which are now in a worse plight than those of Egypt proper. The estimated receipts in the Sudan were \$2,800,000. Scarcely \$900,000 have thus far come in, and only the most sanguine hope that \$900,000 more may be collected. The yearly expenses in the meantime have been \$3,000,000, thus leaving a deficit for this year of \$1,200,000 at least. Last year the result was but little better, for, although the deficiency was only \$500,000, yet \$1,000,000 of Abyssinian war-expenses being charged to the Sudan made a deficit of \$1,500,000. Thus in two years the Sudan becomes indebted to Egypt for \$2,700,000, or the amount of the average total receipts of the Sudan for one year.

These figures are the more significant if the fact be borne in mind that, when the slave-trade was in full vigor, the money over and above all expenses which was paid yearly into the treasury at Cairo was often not less than \$2,500,000; and besides, this surplus was obtained at a time when the Sudan administration did not control one-half of its present extent of territory. Egypt has certainly paid dearly for the suppression of the slave-trade in her dominions, and the sincerity of Ismail Pasha's efforts to that end cannot be doubted. By this costly campaign of Gessi Pasha the slave-traffic has been stopped, but whole districts, once cultivated and thriving, have been laid waste, and are now little better than a desert. Villages have been destroyed, and the most enterprising inhabitants killed or driven away by want of food. The remedy has been as bad as the disease, and it is now probable that the larger part of Darfur, together with the Bahr-el-Gazal Province, will be evacuated by the Egyptians and left to their own fate; the cost of the proper administration of those countries being deemed too great for the existing state of Egyptian finances, and the hoped-for profits being too remote. Under these circumstances Gordon Pasha has resigned the Governor-Generalship of the Sudan, and the resignation will go into effect upon his return from Abyssinia in about two months.

Although the Darfur revolts have been put down, their moral effect is likely to be most mischievous. Scarcely had Gordon Pasha arrived in Cairo when an envoy from King John of Abyssinia also arrived, and demanded of the Khedive the restoration to Abyssinia of the port of Massowa and a large tract of fertile territory to the north and northwest of Abyssinia, known as the Bogos country. As King John is doubtless aware, such a demand could not have been made at a more unfortunate moment for Egypt, when there is not a piastre to spare from the treasury, and when the army has just been reduced to eighteen thousand men by order of the Porte. The Khedive informed the Consuls-General of France, Germany, and England of the demands of King John, and requested their advice. The result was that, after consulting their Governments, the Consuls-General of France and England drew up a joint-note forbidding the King of Abyssinia to make war upon Egypt, and Gordon Pasha, bearing this note, left here on the first of September for Abyssinia, where he will endeavor to cause the King to withdraw his inopportune demands. Gordon Pasha's mission is rendered more difficult by the fact that King John has reduced to submission two of his most rebellious chiefs, and has already promised them handsome portions of Egyptian territory. The Egyptian soldiers are, moreover, utterly despised by the mountaineers of Abyssinia, who have already exterminated two Egyptian expeditions, each of about fifteen hundred men, commanded by Europeans, and have driven from their country a third expeditionary force of no less than twenty thousand men provided with Remington breechloaders and batteries of Krupp guns, and accompanied by about thirty European and American officers. King John is said to be confident of obtaining his demands, and does not put much faith in any military interference on the part of England and France. Hence the result of Gordon Pasha's negotiations is looked forward to here with no little anxiety.

Much discontent has been caused here by the persistence of the French Government in forcing the services of M. de Blignières upon the new Khedive. Only a few weeks ago the Khedive said to the correspondent of the *London Times*:

"I am grateful to the Powers for much consideration they have shown me, but they are making a blunder in proposing the return of Mr. Wilson or M. de Blignières. Personally I am friendly with both, but they have been tried once and have failed. They cannot be the only men available. We should annul the past and start afresh. I say this openly now, because I never intrigue. If Europe insists I cannot refuse. I will welcome them as friends cordially, and as Khedive assist them; but I distinctly decline all responsibility for what I consider an unnecessary blunder."

Almost every European resident here holds the same views as the

Khedive in this matter, and regrets to see the return of M. de Blignières to the post of French Controller-General, which will inevitably reopen many bitter personal wounds that would otherwise have been forgotten. The English Government had the tact not to send Mr. Rivers Wilson, but Major Baring, for whom the Khedive professed a preference. The French Government, on the other hand, seems to regard the return of M. de Blignières as a point of honor—a view which is not held by any one in Egypt, inasmuch as the deposition of Ismail Pasha is deemed an ample reparation for the slight offered to France and England by the dismissal of Messrs. Wilson and de Blignières. In a legal point of view the forcing of M. de Blignières into the position of Controller-General is an insult to Egypt, for by the terms of the decree of November 18, 1876, there is not the slightest doubt but that the choice of the Controllers-General rests solely and exclusively with the Khedive.

THE CATASTROPHE AT KABUL.

LONDON, September 16, 1879.

IN my letters to you on "The Results of the War in Afghanistan" I exposed the hollowness and unreality of the Treaty of Gundamuck and the perilous character of the engagements we had entered into with Yakub Khan. At that time I did not anticipate that retribution would overtake us so speedily as it has done; but during the few weeks that have elapsed since those letters were written the signs of an impending storm have been accumulating in Afghanistan. And so unmistakable had these become that just a week before the murder of Major Cavagnari I warned a leading Liberal politician that he must be prepared to hear of a catastrophe. The Ministry, in its foolish fashion, went on to the very last circulating optimistic accounts of the state of feeling in Afghanistan, as if the hostility could be conjured away by pretending that it did not exist.

The newspapers will have given you all the particulars which are as yet known of the manner in which Major Cavagnari and his comrades perished. I need not, therefore, repeat a story which all your readers will know already. The objects of my present letter will be (1) to delineate the military situation as it is at present, and (2) to attempt to estimate the future consequences of the catastrophe on Great Britain and our Indian Empire.

The first Afghan war was not less remarkable for its folly than for its iniquity; but the authors and advocates of that war had at least one excuse which cannot be pleaded by Lord Lytton: they did not act counter to the teachings of experience. The almost incredible vanity, ignorance, and unteachableness of Lord Lytton caused him to engage in this war in defiance of historic precedents and the warnings of every man of eminence who had acquired a thorough knowledge of the matter. In his despatch giving a history of his policy he says that "carefully-verified facts" had convinced him that all his predecessors in India were mistaken, and that he alone was the wise and discerning statesman who understood Afghanistan and its people. Among these "carefully-verified facts" was the ridiculous hallucination that the Afghans were so wearied of the oppressions and exactions of the late Amir Shir Ali that they would hail our advent in their territories as deliverers and friends; and in his despatch he says that the events of the war proved the anticipation to be correct. This statement is a good example of the romance-writing in which the Government, both at home and in India, sought to hide the actual facts of the war in Afghanistan. So far from being weary of him, the whole country remained loyal and steadfast to Shir Ali up to the day of his death. No rival competitor dared to show himself in the field; no tribe tendered its submission to the English invaders. On the contrary, we were everywhere encountered by unmistakable proofs of dislike. The flanks and rear of our columns were perpetually attacked; our baggage was always in danger of being plundered; neither officer, soldier, nor camp-follower could move beyond the precincts of the camp, except in parties and armed; and we did not hold a rood of territory on which our troops were not actually encamped. In the face of all these proofs of inveterate hostility, Lord Lytton chose to act as if the Afghans were entirely friendly. An undefended British envoy was stationed in Kabul. The Afghans waited until our troops had withdrawn within the new frontier—until the columns had been broken up and the baggage animals scattered—and then they massacred the envoy and his escort and declared war against the infidel.

The difficulty of carrying on military operations in Afghanistan is caused not so much by its physical character as from the want of food. The country is about the size of France, but the entire population is certainly not five millions. Only a small portion of these are agriculturists,

and they obtain from the soil no more than suffices for their own wants. These patches of cultivated land are divided by vast interspaces of stony waste, without inhabitants and productive of nothing on which human beings or animals can subsist. The consequence is that an army entering Afghanistan must carry its provisions. Hence the enormous trains of camels which are needed before a column can advance from its base of supply. But of all animals the camel is the most difficult to keep alive. A camel that is born and bred in a particular district, unless attended to with the greatest care, will sicken and die if he has to live outside of it. Camels that were born and bred on the plains of India dropped and died by the hundred as soon as they were transferred to the bleak highlands of Afghanistan. The official narrative estimates the number of camels which died during our recent raid at 61,000. The result is that the columns lately engaged in Afghanistan are at present almost entirely destitute of carriage, and until this want is supplied an advance on Kabul is impossible. How utterly destitute the troops are of carriage can be divined from the following circumstance: The news of the murder of Major Cavagnari reached Simlah on the 6th of September. Orders were immediately sent to Brigadier Massey, commanding at Ali Kheyl, to take possession of the summit of the Shutar Gardan. But though Ali Kheyl is distant from the summit of the Shutar Gardan only twenty-five miles, this advance was not effected until the 13th. Want of carriage was of course the reason of the delay. But if carriage is so scarce that a small force cannot be moved twenty-five miles, weeks—nay, months—may elapse before an army sufficiently strong to advance upon Kabul is provided with the baggage-animals necessary to enable it to move. These baggage-animals cannot be largely reduced in numbers by limiting the personal baggage of officers and men, because it is food which they have to carry—their own food as well as that of the men and camp-followers. But long trains of camels moving through a difficult country swarming with robbers require strong guards and numerous posts to keep open communications, and these again require to be fed. Thus it is that the preparations which have to be made in order to penetrate to the interior of Afghanistan are out of all proportion to the armed resistance which is to be expected.

But at the present time the transport difficulty is only one of many which have to be overcome before an advance can be made. A considerable time must elapse before a sufficient number of troops can be concentrated for a movement upon Kabul. In the late war the strongest columns of invasion entered Afghanistan, the one under General Stewart from Sukkur on the Indus, through the Bolan Pass, and so on to Kandahar; the other, under General Sir Sam. Browne, marched through the Khybar Pass on Jalalabad. Of these the first reached Kandahar with its transport train completely destroyed, and eight thousand men were immediately withdrawn to India, to rescue the army from starvation. About four thousand men, very scantily supplied with carriage, now hold the long line from Quetta to Kandahar. They cannot be reinforced from India, because the Sindh desert is impassable until the end of October, and also because Sindh has been swept so bare of camels that animals could not be provided for the reinforcements. Consequently, on the Kandahar side no movement in the direction of Kabul is possible. General Stewart will have done all that can be expected of him if, with his small force, he maintains his hold upon Kandahar during the long winter.

The troops under General Sir Sam. Browne, which maintained the line from the Indian side of the Khybar to Jalalabad, suffered grievously during the war from sickness; and still more heavily when evacuating Afghanistan. Cholera and typhoid fever assailed the column on its march home with such virulence that many of the regiments are still quite unfit for active service. As with General Stewart, the transport train of this column was entirely destroyed from fatigue, exposure, and want of food, and there is hardly the possibility that a force can be organized to advance along this line in sufficient time to obtain possession of the passes between Jalalabad and Kabul before they are made impassable by the winter snow. The only hope, therefore, of a speedy occupation of Kabul depends upon the state of the troops in the Kurram Valley.

The summit of the Shutar Gardan is distant from Kabul only fifty-five miles. But the mountain is eleven thousand feet high, and the descent into the Lohur Valley is very steep and difficult: indeed, impracticable for artillery. Moreover, the Kurram Valley, Khost, and the Shutar Gardan swarm with tribes bitterly hostile to the English invaders, and an advance to Kabul along this line could not be attempted except in great force. The number of troops reported to be in the Kurram Valley at the present time is 5,500, English and natives. I suspect that this includes native soldiers absent at their homes on furlough; and it is certain

that there is a great deal of sickness among the English regiments. Any way, it is a force which would be exposed to much peril if pushed on unsupported to Kabul. Neither from the Khybar nor Kandahar could it look for support or co-operation, and by the beginning of November the winter snows would close its communications with British territory on the further side of the Shutar Gardan. It would have to pass the winter at Kabul, in complete isolation, surrounded by hostile tribes, without magazines, and with no crops upon the ground. It would, in fact, find it impossible to subsist, and fall a victim to famine, if not to the enemy. According to the last news, General Roberts has applied to have this force raised to twelve thousand, and his application, we are informed, has been granted. But it is very doubtful if such a force can be organized in time to advance before the setting in of winter. In the Kurram Valley, as elsewhere, there is a terrible want of camels. It is, besides, the sickliest period of the year in the Punjab. The regiments that might most speedily reinforce General Roberts are prostrated with fever; and it is my impression that Kabul will not be occupied until the spring. There is nothing to be gained and much to be hazarded by attempting an earlier advance. The tribes are at present fired by religious zeal, and would be likely to offer an obstinate resistance. A British army, having to pass the winter at Kabul, would be exposed to very considerable danger; whereas, if we occupied the winter in getting together supplies and an adequate train of camels, we might next spring take the field in such force as to overawe all resistance and march unopposed upon Kabul.

But the situation is full of peril to our Indian Empire on other accounts than the campaigning difficulties. The unjust and arbitrary manner in which Lord Lytton treated the late Amir Shir Ali is not an exception to the general character of his administration. It has all along been harsh, unjust, and thoroughly unwise. The statesman who, despite all warnings and experience, plunged into this insane war, is not likely to exhibit sound judgment in other matters, and Lord Lytton has succeeded in creating throughout India an irritation and bitterness towards our rule which would speedily pass into acts of overt hostility if any disaster befell us in Afghanistan. The man ought to be recalled: his capacities are well fitted for making complimentary speeches after dinner, or at the opening of a Fine Arts Exhibition, but for more serious business than this he is unfit. Assuming, however, that no new troubles occur, and that we obtain possession of Kabul without much trouble, what are we to do then? It is extremely puzzling to find an answer to this enquiry. The ministerial journals are striving desperately to make out a case in favor of a return to the arrangements formulated under the Treaty of Gundamuck; and this is a good sign, in that it evinces that the Ministry are aware of the insuperable difficulties in the way of annexation. At the same time it is quite impossible to fall back on the Treaty of Gundamuck, because the provisions of that treaty were based upon the assumption that a certain state of things existed in Afghanistan which never has existed there, and is now less likely than ever to exist in the future.

Since 1842 the constant endeavor of each successive Governor-General has been to draw closer the ties of friendship between ourselves and the rulers of Afghanistan. But the peculiar constitution of society in that country has made it impossible to establish intimate diplomatic relations with the ruler. Afghanistan is not the home of a nation, but of a number of tribes; the Amir is not the ruler of Afghanistan, but of Kabul. His authority over the tribes extends exactly so far as he can enforce it, and no further. Consequently the Amir is nothing more than the chief of a party which the whirligig of fortune brings uppermost for the moment. At any moment his supporters may desert his standard to swell the ranks of a rival, and then his power is at an end. It rests upon force, not upon a national conviction of its legality. This circumstance it was which made Lord Lawrence so sedulous to avoid entanglement in the internal affairs of Afghanistan. He was the friend of the *de-facto* ruler of Kabul, but he steadily resisted all proposals to interfere with the free choice of the Afghans by the interposition of British troops. Until the tribes had, to some extent, coalesced into a single organized kingdom, he felt that his wisest policy was to win their confidence by rigorously abstaining from all encroachment on the wild freedom they so dearly prized. This policy of "masterly inactivity," as it came to be called, produced admirable results, and it was greatly assisted by the circumstance that at this time Afghanistan, under the conduct of two remarkable men—Shir Ali and his father, Dost Mohammed—made considerable progress towards the status of a nation. The internal troubles had given place to quiet and order, and a close alliance existed between Shir Ali and the British Government in India. Nothing was required of us but to afford Shir Ali every assistance in our power towards the completion

of the great work to which he and his father had devoted their lives. At the close of the year 1876 it was in these terms that the Government of India reported upon the rule of Shir Ali :

"Whatever may be the discontent created in Afghanistan by taxation, conscription, and other unpopular measures, there can be no question that the power of the Amir Shere Ali Khan has been consolidated throughout Afghanistan in a manner unknown since the days of Dost Mohammed, and that the officers entrusted with the administration have shown extraordinary loyalty and devotion to the Amir's cause. It was probably the knowledge of the Amir's strength that kept the people aloof from Yakub Khan in spite of his popularity. At all events, Herat fell to the Amir without a blow. The rebellion in Lalpoorah, in the extreme west, was soon extinguished. The disturbances in Budukshan, in the north, were speedily suppressed. *No where has intrigue or rebellion been able to make head in the Amir's dominions.* Even the Char Eimakh and the Hazara tribes are learning to appreciate the advantages of a firm rule. . . . But what we wish specially to repeat is that, from the date of the Umballa Durbar to the present time the Amir has *unreservedly accepted and acted upon our advice to maintain a peaceful attitude towards his neighbors.* We have no reason to believe that his views have changed."

In their mad pursuit after a "scientific frontier" Lord Salisbury and Lord Lytton destroyed in a month the labors of half a century. They brought Afghanistan back to the state of anarchy from which Shir Ali had succeeded in raising it. They rekindled old hatreds against ourselves, tore open the half-healed wounds we had left behind us when we abandoned the country in 1842, broke down all semblance of stable government; and it is with this seething chaos that their supporters in the press tell us we can now establish permanent diplomatic relations, precisely as if nothing of all this had occurred. The notion is monstrous, absurd. We cannot establish stable relations with the Afghans, because there is neither a nation nor a central authority with which to establish them. The only alternatives possible are annexation or withdrawal from the country. In my former letters I explained the dangers of annexation, and will not repeat them here. I do not believe that we could retain India for thirty years after the annexation was consummated. There remains, then, withdrawal. It is hardly possible for the present Government to adopt such a policy without abandoning office and leaving to their opponents the task of carrying it into effect. I do not suppose they are likely to execute upon themselves a "happy despatch" of so meritorious character. But there are signs in the air that the nation is not unlikely to take the matter in its own hands, and declare emphatically that it will not submit to be burdened with the costs and incalculable risks of a policy of annexation. We cannot now withdraw from Afghanistan without a grievous loss of reputation; but it is the least of two evils. It ought to be done as a solemn national act, repudiating a policy which had been "sprung" upon the nation, but which it had never sanctioned and never approved.

Correspondence.

DUNKIN'S 'NOTICES OF ASTRONOMERS.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of my little book, 'Obituary Notices of Astronomers,' given on p. 100 of vol. xxix. of the *Nation*, your reviewer, through a slip of the pen, has been very incorrect in his extracts of the number of pages occupied by the principal notices, on which the following sentence is founded: "The space devoted to the several notices shows that harmonious treatment is not attempted, as the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears no relation to the extent of the notice." This sentence would read differently if the following corrections were made:

Sir John Herschel, for 7 pages read 39.

Sir William Herschel, for 39 pages read 30.

Laugier, for 30 pages read 8.

Le Verrier, for 8 pages read 34.

Littrow, for 34 pages read 7.

Main of Oxford, for 7 pages read 24.

In fact, considering that more than one-half of the book is devoted to Delaunay, the two Herschels, Le Verrier, and Main, you will see that "the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears some relation to the extent of the notice." Your reviewer will, I am sure, acknowledge this.

I should not have troubled you with this letter if the preceding misprints had not unfortunately crept into your article. I may also add that

the book is printed principally for private circulation, only a limited number of copies being offered to the public.

You will oblige me by sending this letter to the writer of the review, who I am sure would be the last to put into print what he knows to be erroneous.

I am, sir, yours truly,

EDWIN DUNKIN.

14 KIDDERPOKE PARK ROAD, BLACKHEATH, LONDON, SEPT. 9, 1879.

[Mr. Dunkin's numbers are correct. Our own were obtained by *differencing* the pages in the table of contents, and are, we regret to say, wrong. But though they were chosen to *illustrate* an inadequate treatment, the notion of inadequacy was not founded on them. We still consider our strictures just.—ED. NATION.]

THE ANCIENT RECORDS OF YUCATAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of the 17th of April last reached my hands only a few days ago. On page 265 I read a few lines signed "A. D.," kindly mentioning Mrs. Le Plongeon and myself. Permit me, through your columns, while thanking the kind writer, in her name and mine, for his appreciation of our labors among the ruined monuments of Yucatan, to answer some of his remarks.

In all my writings on the subject of American archaeology, either to the "Congrès des Américanistes" that assembled in Luxembourg in September, 1877, or to the American Antiquarian Society of Worcester, Mass., or to the Biblio-Archæological Society of London, or in my letters to Mr. Stephen Salisbury, jr., or any other friends, I have been most careful not to advance a single theory of my own. I have simply narrated bare facts as presented to my eyes during my study of the ruined monuments, and the recitals contained in the books of the few chroniclers of the time of the Spanish conquest who have written with "*connaissance de cause*" on Yucatan and its inhabitants. Lands, Cogolludo, Lizana I have found among the best informed, if I have to judge from the ruined monuments and the remnants of ancient customs and traditions still extant among the aborigines.

I rejoice of course to see the few historical treasures discovered by me in Yucatan submitted to an honest and unprejudiced critical analysis, examined in the light of documentary evidence. Truth must spring from the shock of ideas, as sparks from that of hard bodies. But where is that documentary evidence to be found, unless in the study of the bas-reliefs graven on the monuments presented by me to the world in the shape of photographs, or of the mural paintings of Chichen, or in the books *pie-huun* of the ancient It' Menes? These I would long ago have presented to the world had not my investigations been so arbitrarily interrupted by the unlawful acts of the petty officers of the Mexican Government, who, having robbed me of my scientific treasures, and scattered to the wind the few leaves of the pre-historic American history I was trying to gather to bind, have convinced me that, unless protected by the American Government, it would be even criminal in me to disturb the precious volumes, and exhume them from the hiding places where the wise men of Itza concealed them, in order to save them from destruction at the hands of the Nahuas fifteen hundred years ago, lest they also should fall victims to the vandalism of the Mexicans.

We can scarcely admit as documentary evidence the writings of the chroniclers of the Spanish conquest as to what concerns the habits and customs of people who lived thousands of years ago, whose country had been invaded and devastated by different races (four of these are plainly discernible among the aborigines of Yucatan), and their modes of living consequently altered. True, some of the customs of these most ancient dwellers of the Yucatecan peninsula had survived the vicissitudes of time, invasions and revolutions. They were yet extant among the inhabitants of Mayapan at the time of the Spanish conquest, but somewhat altered, however. Just as the Chinese of to-day, whose reverence of the memory of their ancestors amounts even now to worship, have preserved the customs, the very dress even, of their progenitors, but somewhat altered, however.

Let "A. D." take my word for it—and by the study of my photographs and the perusal of my correspondence with Mr. S. Salisbury, jr., he will soon become satisfied of the truth of my assertion—that I have not advanced a single hypothesis or theory, but merely related facts, sustained even by the chroniclers. Let him also remember that the world does not possess to-day a single true description, scientific and critical, of the monuments of Yucatan; and I hope, when I am able to publish my

notes, he will be convinced of that fact. What evidence has, then, the scientific world, in order to pronounce authoritatively on the subject? Nay, more; all the relations and descriptions published up to the present day are incomplete, many untrue, not a few futile, all unscientific, lacking even proper observation.

As to the suggestion to Mr. S. Salisbury, jr., and myself on the importance of gathering MS. relations, official documents, etc., etc., I beg to inform "A. D." that in Yucatan the work of collecting such papers will prove useless. I have attempted it without success. Nay, more; I may assert that such documents have long been used by the grocery clerk to despatch two cents' worth of rice or sugar. A member of the clergy, Presbyter Don Creencio Carillo, of Ancona, a dear friend of ours, the founder of the "Museo Yucateco," has dedicated himself since many years back to the gathering of all papers, documents, MSS., relating to the past history of Yucatan. An able and fluent writer, he has published, at his own expense (he is not rich), all he could find concerning the history of the land of his ancestors. He has spared neither time, money, nor patience to secure every obtainable scrap that could throw light on the subject of his earnest enquiries. He may tell "A. D." about the results of his untiring work. Yet, if anybody was in a position to obtain such documents, Don Creencio Carillo was the man. A member of the clergy, at one time a favorite—in fact, the confessor—of the ill-fated Empress Carlotta, he has had access to the libraries, private and public, of the state, those of the bishop's palace, of the churches, of the religious corporations; many of those of private individuals are open to him. Above all, he is a Yucatecan. Very meagre indeed has been his harvest.

The reasons assigned for this absolute lack of ancient documents and MSS. are:

1. The destruction of the Franciscan Convent of Merida and its contents, library, furniture, and all, by the mob headed by Don Juan Rivas Ortiz, then political chief of Merida, of the 30th of May, 1820. When the new constitution obtained by the patriots in Spain reached the colonies, books, papers, archives, documents, MSS., were scattered in all directions, as well as the three hundred friars inmates of the convent.

2. The complete devastation of most of the cities of Yucatan, their churches, convents, public edifices, with their archives, political, civil, and religious, by the half-savage and infuriated Indian population, at the time of its uprising in 1847.

3. Whatever paper, book, document, or MS. escaped the vandalistic fury of the mob in 1820, and the revengeful wrath of the Indians in 1847, has been used by the revolutionary rabble and soldiery during the many civil strifes which have devastated the State of Yucatan, since 1820 to the present day, either to wrap their powder in and make cartridges or to kindle their bivouac fires.

The hunt for such documentary evidence in Yucatan is, therefore, and must remain, useless. The only thing that remains in order to obtain a perfect knowledge of the habits, customs, and attainments of the people who dwelt in ages gone by on this continent is to disinter the libraries of their wise men. That I am at present most unwilling to do. I do not wish to lend my hand to help in their destruction. Let them remain in safety where they were deposited by their owners and authors until the American Government, answering to my claims presented by the Hon. Geo. F. Hoar, Senator for Massachusetts, to the consideration of the Senate, on the 7th of May, 1876, protects me and the books from the arbitrariness of the Mexican Government and its minions.

I remain, Mr. Editor, yours very respectfully,

AUGUSTUS LE PLONGEON, M.D.

COLONY OF BRITISH HONDURAS, BELIZE, Sept. 2, 1879.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO. have in press 'The Mound-Builders,' to which is added an investigation into the archæology of Butler County, Ohio, by J. P. MacLean. The book will be copiously illustrated. They also announce a practical treatise on 'Etching,' by Louisa M. McLaughlin; 'Insect Lives,' by Julia O. Ballard; and the life of a Catholic Missionary to this country in the first quarter of the present century, the Rev. Charles Nerinckx. — A. S. Barnes & Co. issue immediately 'Ancient and Mediæval Republics,' with a review of the causes of their decline and fall, by Henry Mann. — Porter & Coates announce the 'Posthumous Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1773-1815.' — Macmillan & Co.'s 'Poems of Wordsworth,' selected by Matthew Arnold, whose preface we lately remarked upon, on occasion of its separate appearance in a magazine, is a volume

having all the beauty of the Golden Treasury Series in addition to the unimpeachable excellence of the editing. It is divided, by an arrangement not strictly progressive, into Poems of Ballad Form, Narrative Poems, Lyrical Poems; Poems akin to the Antique, and Odes; Sonnets; Reflective and Elegiac Poems. — 'American Poems: Longfellow, Whittier, Bryant, Holmes, Lowell, Emerson, with Biographical Sketches and Notes,' is a small volume of 455 pages just issued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. It was prepared "with special reference to the interests of young people, both at school and at home," and well enough serves such indefinite purpose. No young person will, however, it should be said, get a just idea of any of the poets represented from its pages alone, since but a few of the poems of each are given, and these are selected not because they are specially characteristic, but on account of their length. Its aim is to supplement the many reading-books and popular collections in which only the shorter poems appear. — G. P. Putnam's Sons add to their 'School and College Classics' a compact and convenient edition (16mo, pp. 347) of Bacon's 'Essays,' with an introduction and notes by Henry Lewis, M.A., Principal of Culham College, England. The character of the introduction may be judged from this sentence: "No reader of Bacon's *Essays* would ever infer from them that he was a *good* man, but they bespeak a *shrewd* and *clever* man"; and of the notes from the following to the Essay of "Marriage and Single Life": "History, both national and domestic, records numberless instances in which wives and children have been the very opposite to *impediments*." — 'Taghconic: the Romance and Beauty of the Hills,' by Godfrey Greylock, recently published by Lee & Shepard, is a somewhat desultory but sympathetic collection of the anecdotes and traditions in which Berkshire County, Mass., is particularly rich. It appears to be a venture of a literary aspirant in whom the "romance and beauty" of nature excite a desire to express the emotions which they stimulate, though it is far from a pretentious piece of book-making and is not without interest for persons who know Berkshire. — 'A Sketch of Shakespeare' (Wheeling: Stanton & Davenport; Boston: A. S. Williams & Co.) is the substance of three addresses delivered by William Leighton, who has published several volumes of poems, to the Wheeling Shakspeare Club. The author asks that "enthusiasm in his subject be permitted to stand, in some degree, as an excuse for the book," which is modest, but not unreasonably modest. — On p. 645 of the October number of the *American Naturalist* will be found an account of the latest Boston notion in regard to science-teaching in the public schools. Wealthy ladies furnished the funds, the Institute of Technology a hall, the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy hundreds of duplicate specimens, hotels "such parts of birds as were needed to illustrate one lecture," and as a consequence the audience of teachers have carried away with them or otherwise been supplied with seventy-five thousand specimens of minerals, rocks, plants, and animals, since 1871. — A German translation of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' by Frank Siller (Milwaukee, 1879), may be recommended to American students of the German language as a very faithful and perfectly smooth version of the original poem. — Part VII. of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' (B. Westermann & Co.) begins the history of Peter the Great, by Dr. Brückner, and brings it down to the year 1716. Four interesting historical portraits accompany the text. The nearly simultaneous appearance of the first part of Mr. Eugene Schuyler's life of the same ruler (in *Scribner's* for November) should not be overlooked. — Fresh English announcements are the 'Memoirs of Mme. de Régnisat' (1802-1808), by her grandson, Paul; the 'Life and Writings of Henry Thomas Buckle,' by Alfred Henry Huth; 'Witchcraft in Queen Elizabeth's Time in general, and in Shakspeare's Plays in particular,' by T. Alfred Spalding; 'Jesus of Nazareth,' by Edward Clodd; 'Up the Amazon and Madeira Rivers,' by Edward D. Mathews; 'Up and Down,' by Capt. W. J. Barry, being personal experiences in Australia, New Zealand, California, the East Indies, etc.; and 'Branches from the Main Routes around the World,' by James Kingston. — The *Sanitary Engineer* of this city is about to offer prizes amounting to \$500 in all for the best plans of a model school-house. Their competition for tenement-house plans has had a wholesome effect upon legislation, and is leading to practical results in the shape of building associations.

—The completion of 'The American Catalogue' deserves more than the passing notice which we gave it last week. Previous attempts at trade-lists of American literature have not been very successful. Roobach's unsatisfactory volumes (1820-68) no doubt cost their compiler a certain amount of labor and were useful to the booksellers, but for literary and library purposes were provokingly, exasperatingly insufficient. Their omissions, their mistakes, their at best meagre information would excite the contempt of a German bookseller. The poverty of plan was

matched by slovenliness of execution. Kelly's two volumes (1861-71) were an improvement, yet left much to be desired. In this branch of bibliography we were worse off than the Germans of course, than the French, than the Dutch; worse off even than the English, which is saying much. But our reputation is now in part retrieved. We have not yet a bibliographical list of American literature that will compare with Kayser and Heinsius. And, in truth, the impression forced upon one in turning over these pages is that the greater part of American books do not deserve bibliographical description. But although we have not all that we could desire, we have a list, probably nearly complete, of books in print and for sale July 1, 1876, prepared with great trouble, and with as much fulness and exactitude as could be expected. That it is not better is not the fault of the compilers but of the American publishers, who are notoriously indifferent to the books they issue, except as articles of merchandise. This carelessness of publishers and neglect to reply to the circulars sent to them by the compilers has led to one of the serious defects of the book—the failure in many instances to give the date of publication. For all books issued too late to be found in Allibone, where is one to look for the time of original appearance—often a question of considerable interest in literary, scientific, and historical investigations? The compilers have not depended solely on the publishers, but have searched catalogues of libraries and other sources with a result, on the whole, satisfactory, both as to this and other matters of detail, and, so far as we have had the opportunity of testing the work by use, it has seemed to be printed with unusual accuracy. Yet, with commendable honesty, in each part a list of errata is given and a request to readers for more.

—A correspondent writes us from Boston under date of Sept. 22 :

"'A.' in last week's *Nation*, says you are 'very incorrect' in saying that the orderly sergeant does all the official work in the company, except certain official signatures and posturings. I was an enlisted man in the Army from 1857 to 1865. I knew of the company-writing in dozens of companies in the cavalry, infantry, and artillery. I wrote in the company, in the medical, the adjutant's, the commissary, and the quartermaster's departments. 'A.' says an officer keeps his own accounts. I never knew of an officer's doing it, and I never knew of an account's coming back. The officer only signs his name. This work is all done by enlisted men."

—In the *Athenæum* of September 13 Mr. Edward Scott prints a letter which he discovered while cataloguing the papers of Sir Edward Nicholas, Secretary of State to Charles I. and Charles II., and which, he considers, throws some light upon Milton's divorce from his first wife, Mary Powell. She was the daughter of a Royalist, Richard Powell, and married Milton in the spring of 1643 at Forest Hill, near Oxford; Charles was at Oxford during the whole of this year; and within three months after his marriage Milton divorced his wife. These circumstances, taken in connection with the letter, in which one William Garret sets forth that he "did often send intelligence to your Honour at Oxon by the hands of Mr. Richard Powell," who, it is stated in a postscript, "lived at Forest-Hill neare Oxon," induce Mr. Scott to believe the Royalists at Oxford gained information of the Puritan movements through the brothers of Mary Powell, the new wife playing the spy, as she could have done to good purpose in so important a household as Milton's—whence the divorce. Mr. Scott also found an original draft of an answer in Secretary Nicholas's hand to Garret's letter, certifying to Garret's diligence and faithfulness "by giving frequent and good intelligence through my hands whilst his Majesty was at Oxford of the then Rebels movements and other matters." In the light of his surmise Mr. Scott has looked up passages in the 'Samson Agonistes,' from which he quotes at lines 382, 488, and 773 to show that blindness, abstemiousness, marriage with an enemy's daughter, etc., were not the only resemblances between Milton and his hero, and that to these should be added the betrayal of his secrets by his wife. The conjecture is certainly reasonable enough, though, beyond mere circumstantiality, the most that is to be said in its favor is perhaps that nothing is to be said against it.

—The *Catholic World* has long been noteworthy for the literary excellence it displays in circumstances often peculiarly trying. Its task has sometimes seemed similar to that of the Laputan scientist who sought sunbeams in cucumbers; but it has pursued it with a spirit of devotion and calm acquiescence in the dearth of temporary applause in a high degree admirable, and commendable to the imitation of heated and frivolous controversialists. Its view of literature is not wholly unlike the view of science taken in the recent Encyclical of His Holiness. Catholic literature does not indeed stop with St. Thomas Aquinas, as Catholic science is admonished to do in that document, but of other than Catholic literature the reviewers of the *Catholic World* have generally held the same opinion

as that held of modern atheistical science by the Holy Father—an opinion expressed almost invariably in excellent English, though at times, it has seemed, with needless ferocity. Violence is, however, natural when one has to maintain a difficult position, and there have been evidences that the position which assumes distinctly Protestant and Anglo-Saxon literature to be of trivial import has at times seemed difficult to the *Catholic World*. The cordiality with which it welcomed Mr. Mallock, and the admiration with which it regards St. George Mivart, are evidences that it is glad not to be entirely shut up to the general run of contemporary Celtic and Catholic literature, varied now and then by Mr. Aubrey De Vere's verses. The best course is, however, often the boldest, and taking the bull by the horns is often the safest way of dealing with him. This is what has been done by a writer in the October number, who proclaims "The Need of a New Dunciad," and formulates the creed of the magazine with frank precision. "Whatever power, beauty, or strength the English language has," he thinks, "it owes in the main to the Latin element, as modified through the Norman-French." All the oratory and poetry of the language "belong to Erin and Caledonia." The Anglo-Saxon intellect is "slow, cautious, and prosaic," and its literary style is "a heavy and labored attempt to make its meaning clear." To Anglo-Saxons also are to be attributed "all the blunders in the use of figures cited in the school-books." "Shakspeare himself," it is added, is not free from this Anglo-Saxon habit of making "false and absurd metaphors." No mention is made of the forgeries known as Sir Boyle Roche's speeches, but we are assured that "the most charming social and literary essays, *vers de société*, and the choicest *belles-lettres* in our unmanageable tongue are the productions of Irishmen." In fine, we infer that if it were not for the Anglo-Saxon element in our literature, it would rival that of the golden age of Erin, when, in the words of an eloquent Celt, "Ireland was full of kings who ate off tables of gold and had libraries filled with thousands and thousands of volumes of the most beautiful poetry." It is possibly towards a renaissance of this era that the *Catholic World* labors so cleverly and consistently.

—A French critic, Arvède Barine, has been comparing the English and the American schools of fiction, and the result is not altogether favorable for either. In the first the critic finds, with a very few brilliant exceptions, fecundity and mediocrity; in the second, fervor, audacity, and a grain of poetry, qualities which might win a victory for the Americans were it not for one unpardonable defect—want of taste. He then analyses, as typical examples, Trollope's 'Eye for an Eye' and 'The Modern Mephistopheles.' The American romance (which, it is well to add, belongs to the "No Name Series") is highly praised, even for the tact with which some of the most famous scenes of the German poet are imitated, yet this fatal want of taste is declared to be, as it were, the trade-mark of an American romance. The phrase "a passionate perfume" and Gladys' taking hashish are the only instances given.

—M. Jules Simon and his associates in his opposition to the Ferry law restricting the liberty of teaching have received a weighty accession in the person of M. Littré, the veteran lexicographer and Comtist. In an article in a recent number of the *Philosophie positive* M. Littré defines what he calls "le catholicisme selon le suffrage universel," and which we may translate as Catholicism subdued (or attempered, or accommodated) to universal suffrage. The peculiar characteristic of this body, which he appears to regard as the *gros* or mass of the French population, is that while sincerely observant of all the church requirements as to attendance on preaching, the confessional, communion, the marriage sacrament, extreme unction, etc., when it comes to vote for deputies, counsellors-general, and municipal officers it is completely indifferent to the religious professions of its candidates, and is concerned only about their political opinions, its chief care being respect for the essential conditions of modern society as the Revolution established them. Hence, on the other hand, it votes to exclude from office everything clerical, ultramontane or jesuitical—or, in other words, the avowed and implacable enemies of lay government. This qualified Catholicism has two sorts of foes, the Radicals and the Clericals. Against the Radicals, who would have no Catholics, its security is guaranteed by the Concordat, which the present Republican Government has inherited, and which it will be slow to terminate at the bidding of those who wish to suppress the budget of public worship, thereby seeming to declare war on the faith. As for the Clericals, they would, like the Radicals, if they could, use the temporal authority to crush what they deem a seditious revolt, not less hateful than Gallicanism; but perforce resort to spiritual weapons, relying especially on education to change the mind of the masses, and render them submissive to

the Syllabus. Should they succeed, the votes of the Catholics "selon le suffrage universel" would presently raise into power men profoundly hostile to Republican institutions, and ready to precipitate another 16th of May with increasing chances of success. This great danger requires the utmost vigilance on the part of the Government, and it can be met in one of two ways, viz., prevention or repression: by interdicting such and such associations, such and such modes of instruction, or by interference only when necessary, with a general reliance "for the defence of the dearest national interests on the lay institutions in their totality, vigorously sustained and developed."

—Of this latter policy M. Littré declares himself an adherent, and he justifies his position by prudential considerations, as that the Jesuits, if persecuted for teaching the doctrines of the Syllabus, which are held by a multitude in France and out of it, would find secret modes of propaganda which would quite compensate them for having their schools closed and teachers dismissed. He also argues frankly in favor of according toleration to those who do not tolerate, liberty to those who deny it to others, free permission to teach to those who "falsify history, disfigure morality, and pervert politics," opportunity to create in the midst of the nation a hostile nation bent on ruining the lay establishment, just as the monarchical parties are seeking to overthrow the present régime. Still, he would not *laisser faire, laisser passer* simply. He would have "the defensive organized with vigor, and perseveringly followed up." The programme of perfect equality for all beliefs in the eyes of the Government will in the long run, if faithfully carried out, be a persuasive advocate in the forum of individual opinion. Meantime, the moral forces of modern society will be more than a match for those of its opponents, and will have on their side the University, improved by competition, and free to teach all branches of knowledge independently of any prejudice or dogma. Once M. Littré agreed with Comte in desiring the abolition of the University; now he considers that time has proved both him and his master in the wrong. The measures immediately demanded are that the state should have restored to it the conferring of degrees, and should refuse henceforth to accept *lettres d'obédience* as equivalent to the examinations which lay teachers, male and female, undergo; and that, under one form or another, private courses should be authorized. Regarding the contest philosophically, M. Littré concludes that the creeds will gain but little upon each other, but that notable gains will be made by lay government upon theological government, the former everywhere approaching a uniform type, in which the social régime will be subject to sociological laws, studied, applied, and utilized in the same manner as natural laws.

—Few poets are more interesting as regards personal character than was Heine; and though his life was not eventful, it fell in such times and places that whatever observations he may have made could not fail to be agreeable reading. In his collected works are snatches of autobiography (as the famous passage in which he describes, in his boyhood, seeing Bonaparte ride up the Schloss-Allée at Düsseldorf); but, charming as these are, they are tantalizing from their brevity. It now appears that he wrote voluminous memoirs, which are supposed to be still in existence, but where and in whose custody is a matter of dispute. A person who calls himself "Ein Eingeweihte" writes to the *Deutsches Montagsblatt* that two volumes of the memoirs, covering the years 1800–1836, are kept under lock and key in the archives of the Finance Ministry in Vienna, and gives a curious account of how they came there. The poet had a brother named Gustav, who was a journalist of none too respectable a character apparently, in Vienna, where he thrived both pecuniarily and otherwise. In 1852 Gustav Heine visited his brother in Paris, finding him, as usual, in great need of money. As security for a loan of 5,000 francs, Heinrich offered him the MS. of the memoirs, which thus changed hands and reached the Austrian capital, where Gustav was now editor of a semi-official paper, which he to this day controls. For reasons unknown, however, he did not care to keep the papers in his own possession, and therefore conveyed them to the Government, receiving in exchange the sum originally advanced. Soon after this he was made a baron. The discussion thus started by "Ein Eingeweihte" is taken up by Heine's friend, Alfred Meissner, who says Heine one day showed him a great pile of MS. which he said was his memoirs, to the writing of which he had given several years. Mr. Meissner, however, has strong doubts of the memoirs being in the possession of the Austrian Government, for why, he asks, should the Austrian officials think it worth while to buy the autobiography of a man of letters, in which Austria was perhaps not once mentioned? The answer to this argument is that Baron Heine had reason to wish his brother's memoirs out of the way, as well as to get back his money. Yet, as he held the MS. only as security for the payment of a

debt, he could not sell it, much less destroy it, and so hit upon the plan of burying it, so to say, alive. The Government, on the other hand, presumably had grounds for wishing to please Baron Heine.

—Those who are interested in the famous mediæval romance of 'The Seven Wise Masters' will be glad to learn that the Syriac version has at last been published under the title, 'Sindban, oder die Sieben Weisen Meister' (Leipzig, 1879). The work contains also a German translation and introduction. Heretofore the oldest Oriental version of 'The Seven Wise Masters' has been the Greek 'Syntipas,' which the author, Andreopolus, says in his prologue he translated from the Syriac. The existence of the latter was doubted until it was made known by Rüdiger in 1866. This work, now accessible in Baethgen's edition, is undoubtedly the original of the Greek translation. The Syriac MS. is unfortunately defective; in the body of the work the story known as "Balneator" is wanting, and the last three stories are lacking. The Syriac version in turn is only a translation from the Arabic, and its original is probably also the original of the interesting Spanish version, 'Libro de los Engaños de las Mujeres,' published by Comparetti in his 'Ricerche intorno al libro di Sindibad' (Milan, 1869). As to the age of the Syriac version, it can only be said that it is of course older than 'Syntipas,' which Comparetti in the work just mentioned has shown was composed at the end of the eleventh century. As long as the Arabic version or Sanskrit original is not found, the Syriac version is, as the editor remarks, the oldest evidence of the Buddhistic work, which, according to Benfey in the introduction to his translation of the *Panchatantra*, is, with *Kalila and Dimna*, of the greatest importance for the history of culture, and stands at the head of an extremely extensive and influential literary cycle.

—There are few more interesting questions in historical geography than the steps by which the petty states into which the Duchy of Lower Lotharingia was split drew together again, by their natural affinity, disjoined themselves by degrees from the German Empire and (in union with some cognate French states) formed themselves into "the Netherlands." The Duchy of Burgundy, built up chiefly by Philip the Good and Charles the Bold, was the principal agent in the work. The process was, however, going on before this, and an important stage in it has just been brought to light by Prof. Fredericq, of Ghent, in a paper entitled "Le Renouveau en 1578 du Traité d'Alliance conclu à l'époque de Jacques Van Artevelde entre la Flandre et le Brabant," presented last November to the Brussels Société pour le Progrès des Études philosophiques et historiques. The title of the paper sufficiently shows its scope: the treaty concluded in 1339 under the inspiration of James Van Artevelde (Hainault soon acceded to it) created "a sort of confederation, which was the first germ of the Netherlands, such as the Dukes of Burgundy and Charles V. organized them afterwards." Thus Van Artevelde not merely established the liberty of his native Flanders, but was chiefly instrumental in bringing her from the union with France into the more congenial fellowship of the Lotharingian states. This alliance did not long survive its founder; but, as is shown by Prof. Fredericq, its memory was revived and it was made the basis of new action in the time of William of Orange.

THE RUSSIAN ARMIES IN TURKEY.*

ON the outbreak of the late Russo-Turkish war Lieutenant Greene was assigned by the War Department at Washington as military attaché to the Legation in St. Petersburg, for the purpose of observing the operations in the field from the Russian side. He proceeded without delay to St. Petersburg, readily obtained the Czar's permission to join the army on the Danube, reached the Imperial headquarters on August 5, 1877, and remained with the army throughout the campaign, and until peace was definitively assured by the Berlin treaties of July, 1878. He then returned to his post at the legation in St. Petersburg, where he collected and digested the official war reports, as well as the data for a study of the military system of Russia. The book before us is a reprint of his official report to the War Department. "This report aims to give, first, a concise but accurate description of the Russian Army; second, a narrative of the course of the campaigns in Europe and Asia Minor; and, third, a brief discussion of the use of temporary field fortifications in connection with the modern breech-loading musket." Of the four parts into which the work is thus naturally divided, the first (pp. 3–136) is a literal compilation (with brief résumés) from Russian official books on the

* 'The Russian Army and its Campaigns in Turkey in 1877–1878. By F. V. Greene, First Lieutenant in the Corps of Engineers, United States Army, and lately Military Attaché to the United States Legation at St. Petersburg.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879. Text, 8vo, pp. xii. and 459; atlas, plates 26.

recruiting, organization, armament, administration, and tactics of the army; the third (pp. 377-418), a short sketch of the campaign in Armenia, based on no personal observation by the author; and the fourth (pp. 421-455), on the defence and attack of fortified positions, interesting only to specialists; the second part (pp. 139-374), on the campaign in Bulgaria, forms the main portion of the whole, the most valuable to the general public as it is the most extensive and interesting. It is this part alone which we will here consider.

Lieutenant Greene's opportunities for observation and study were ample. "The Russian authorities extended to all the foreign officers who came properly accredited to them . . . the most complete facilities for observing the course of events as they actually transpired." They were granted full permission to join whatever troops they chose, and to pass from one detachment to another. Lieutenant Greene, whose sympathies, like those of a large majority of his countrymen, were known to be on the side of Russia, while with the troops at the front usually received copies of the field-orders for every movement, and, after the issue, more than once obtained oral communications from the leading commanders which shed light on the reports for publication. Having arrived at headquarters after the first two defeats before Plevna (in the latter half of July) and the failure of Gourko's first expedition beyond the Balkans, he was personally present, August 23 and 24, in the battles of Shipka, where Suleiman Pasha recklessly threw away the chance of forcing the retreat of the demoralized enemy beyond the Danube; witnessed, September 11, the most terrible repulse of the Russians by Osman Pasha—their loss in those days exceeding eighteen thousand, according to their own reports; rode along the line of the Tzesarevitch's outposts and positions between the Lom and Yantra in October; passed the Balkans with Gourko's column during the winter, witnessing the battle of Tashkessen on the last day of 1877, and the fights near Philippopolis, January 15-17, which forced the bulk of Suleiman's army, under Fuad Pasha, to disperse and seek safety in the Rhodope Mountains; and then joined General Skobelev, who had just decided the fate of the Turkish army at Shipka, and now commanded the advance guard, which in February arrived in front of Constantinople. Lieutenant Greene saw thus a great deal with his own eyes, and his personal experiences must have been varied and often highly interesting. These, however, he entirely passes over in silence, nor does he in the least indulge in pictorial descriptions of marches, assaults, or combats; of landscapes smiling in peace or hideous with thousands of mangled corpses; or of princely cantonments radiant with victory or dismayed by unexpected defeat. All these he has left to the Forbeses and MacGahans, and the other independent "Froudes and Macaulays" of the campaign; his account is an exclusively *military report*, the account of a military man addressed to his superior, on military movements and nothing else. In spite of this strict limitation, however, the narrative is highly interesting not only to those who study war as an art, but to all to whom the study of contemporary history is more than a pastime and worthy of serious application. Its attractiveness for this wider circle of readers it owes chiefly to its plain and good style, its lucidity of statement, and the clearness and fulness of the maps which accompany it.

To his narrowly limited programme the author adheres with the utmost—we must say, with excessive—strictness. He writes only on the army and war before him. The preceding history, the conditions and comparative resources of the warring empires, are not touched upon. We are not told why and how the war arose; the Herzegovinian insurrection of 1875, the Servian and Montenegrin wars of 1876, the dethronements in Constantinople in the same year, the diplomatic negotiations during these events, are totally ignored. More than that, the Montenegrin war of 1877, which so distracted Turkey during the whole course of the Bulgarian campaign, the simultaneous threatenings and disturbances on the Greek border, and even the new Servian campaign which opened on the fall of Plevna, and was actively continued to the time of the Russian armistice, are equally passed over in complete silence, barring a mere mention of Servia's declaration of war, and the statement that Suleiman came with his troops from Montenegro. The name Herzegovina does not occur in the whole book. The narrative is restricted to active operations, and chiefly tactical manœuvres; marches are only exceptionally described, and hardly anything is said about the Russian headquarters, camp arrangements, the commissariat, the engineering department, the quality of the regular supplies, the hospitals, the morale of the officers and men (apart from bravery and endurance), or the expenses of the campaign. Corruption in the army, as a source of delays, sufferings, and failures, is not alluded to. Nor are Russians, Turks, Rumanians, and Bulgarians contrasted

with each other as soldiers or otherwise. The battling Russian army alone is considered. Its movements in important actions are most minutely described, and its courage, steadiness, and achievements heartily applauded. The omissions are generally to the prejudice of the Turk, but not designedly so, the Turk being only an indirect subject of the book. What also redounds to the prejudice of Russia's enemy is that the author has based his narrative mainly on Russian accounts, and "placed full reliance upon all the official reports"; only in a "few rare cases . . . the statement of relative losses seemed exaggerated." His pro-Russian bias, so natural under the circumstances, is most clearly betrayed in parallels drawn (pp. 367, 368) between the Bulgarian campaign and other late wars, where he declares that, "after all criticism has been made upon the faults of the Russians at the beginning of the war and around Plevna, still the campaign as a whole must be judged to be the equal in brilliancy and the solidity of its results of any in recent history," not excluding "the Franco-German war of 1870—the military marvel of modern times." Notwithstanding this bias, Lieutenant Greene evinces both candor and independence, and a modestly cautious judgment. In what vein he exercises his independence of judgment in regard to the high personages with whom he lately associated, may be seen from the following interesting fragment of the retrospect upon the disastrous repulse before Plevna, Sept. 11, 12:

"1. There was a certain lack of unity in the command of the army.

"The troops assembled at Plevna were under the command of Prince Charles of Roumania, as already stated; but this command was to a certain extent nominal, and the dispositions previous to the battle depended largely upon Lieutenant-General Zotof, who had commanded the troops before Prince Charles's arrival, and who was now his chief-of-staff. General Zotof was unfortunately not a general of the calibre to command eighty thousand men, but, even had he been a military genius of the first order, it would have been very difficult for him to gain a victory in the circumstances in which he was placed; for, a few days before the movement on Plevna began, the assistant-chief of the general staff, Major-General Levitsky, arrived at Poradim to explain to General Zotof the wishes of the Commander-in-Chief [the Grand Duke Nicholas]. On the day that the bombardment began the Commander-in-Chief arrived in person, and with him his chief of staff, General Nepokoitchitsky. He, of course, confirmed the dispositions already taken, but from this time forward he commanded. Although he rode over the field as far as possible, and even exposed himself imprudently to the enemy's pickets, yet it was impossible for him to be properly familiar with the ground before the assaults were made; so that while he commanded he had to rely upon the information and opinions of others rather than upon his own judgment. Finally, the Emperor was present, with the Minister of War and a large suite. The Emperor came merely as a spectator, to encourage his troops by his presence, and in the hope of witnessing their victory. But the Emperor of Russia is regarded by every Russian soldier, from the highest to the lowest grade, with a feeling which it is difficult to explain in other countries; *at all times* his will is law and his wish a command, and it is not possible for him to be a mere spectator.

"The subject is a somewhat delicate one, and I have no wish to pursue it beyond a statement of the bare facts which were evident to every one present at headquarters who chose to see them. . . ."

The second reason of defeat was the Russian ignorance of the locality; "even the existence of the great Krishan redoubt, the key-point on the south, was not known" till the very beginning of the attack. The plan of battle, the product of divided and ill-informed authority, was thus a general idea of attacking on all sides, and "the Russians were defeated at Plevna, not because the position was impregnable, not because they did not have sufficient forces, but because they were ignorant of the enemy's position, and failed to concentrate their efforts upon the decisive points." Similar reasons are assigned, though only as current recriminations, for the equally disastrous failure of the previous attack on Osman in Plevna, at the end of July: "Shakovskoi [*sic* for Shakhovskoi] complained that Krüdener had not supported him, while Krüdener complained that Shakovskoi had not obeyed his orders. . . . Krüdener was the senior officer present, but Shakovskoi was also a corps commander, though he had only one brigade of his corps with him. Finally, the Grand Duke had given orders from a distance to attack a position of which he knew nothing." As to the first assault on Plevna, under Schilder-Schuldner, July 20, Lieutenant Greene is much more outspoken: "The almost criminal faults of this battle on the part of the Russian commander are so apparent that they hardly need to be pointed out." What, in spite of all these well-deserved failures, makes "the campaign as a whole" appear to our author so exceedingly brilliant is chiefly the double passage of the Balkans in the midst of winter, under Gourko in the west and Skobelev and Mirski, of Radetzky's army, in the east, resulting successively in the dislodgment of the Turkish forces from the mountains before Sophia, the surrounding and capture of the Shipka army of thirty thousand men (Jan. 9), and the dispersion of Suleiman's near Philippopolis.

This vigorous advance he attributes to the influence of the Grand Duke against the counsels of Todleben, to whom again he gives all the credit for the plans which had brought about the fall of Plevna (Dec. 10). The insignificant operations of the Tzarsévitch on the line of the Lom he judges too favorably, considering them as originally designed to be purely defensive; but this was hardly the case, as the repeated feeble attempts against Rustchuk show, which our author entirely ignores. Nor was Zimmermann's inactivity in the Dobrudja the result of design rather than of the paralysis with which the first disasters before Plevna struck all the operations of the invaders, and which lasted until the time when their forces, inadequate at the beginning, were by immense reinforcements made overwhelmingly superior to those of the enemy.

The plan of the work, as above stated, spares its readers the infliction of ghastly pictures of war horrors. Some of its plain statements, however, tell horrible tales: On Dec. 25, the 24th Russian division "had 6,013 men unfit for duty from frost-bites and sickness brought on by the terrible exposure." "At San Stefano, in the following May, . . . at one time 50,000, 45 per cent. of the whole force stationed thereabout, were in the hospitals." On Jan. 19 Skobelev's men attacked an immense train of fugitives from the upper Maritza Valley—"over 20,000 wagons, containing 200,000 people"—escorted by several battalions of infantry. After a sharp fight the escort fled toward the mountains, "followed by the able-bodied portion of the immense caravan, who left the old, the sick, and the babes to perish in the snow. The train was so many miles in length that the Russians could not guard it, and the greater part of it was plundered by the Bulgarians of the neighboring villages, who also massacred the helpless Turks who had not strength enough to flee to the mountains."

FECHNER'S SECOND SOUL.*

NO one, with the exception of Helmholtz, has done more than Professor Fechner, of Leipzig, to put experimental psychology on a firm basis, and to raise it to the dignity of a true science. His epoch-making work on 'Psychophysik' is now indispensable to every student of modern philosophy, partly for its valuable researches on subjective sensations, and partly on account of the detailed examination in it of the so-called psychophysical law which expresses the relations between sensations and their objective causes, and, within certain limits, measures the intensity of the former by means of the latter; thus refuting the notion of Kant, that psychology could never become an exact science because of not being subject to mathematical measurement. Professor Fechner has also made useful contributions to our knowledge of galvanism and the atomic theory, and three years ago he published his valuable 'Vorschule der Aesthetik,' in two volumes. Under the pseudonym of Dr. Mises he has issued a series of humorous and sarcastic essays, one of the objects of his sarcasm being Hegelism, which he correctly defines as "the art of unlearning how to form correct judgments."

Those, however, who would judge of the Leipzig professor by his scientific and literary work alone would be guilty of a serious oversight. Fechner, like Faust, though in a somewhat different sense, might say of himself:

"Zwei Seelen wohnen, ach! in meiner Brust.
Die eine will sich von der andern trennen."

Of these two souls which struggle for the possession of him, one is responsible for his scientific work, while the second is identical with what Schopenhauer describes as the metaphysical instinct. This instinct has often led him to mount the philosophical Pegasus and soar away into regions where no telescope or other scientific instrument could follow him. He has written a book on the comparative anatomy of angels, and another on the souls of plants. He endeavors to make out that every diamond, every crystal, every plant, planet, and star, has its own individual soul, besides man and animals; that there is a hierarchy of souls from the lowest forms of matter up to the world-soul—a sort of eclectic, semi-pantheistic nondescript; and that the spirits of the departed hold psychic communication with souls that are still connected with a human frame—a point to which we may return on another occasion. What concerns us here is that in his last work, which he calls 'Die Tagesansicht gegenüber der Nachtansicht' (The Day-view versus the Night-view) he defends the crudest sort of absolute realism, which we had fondly hoped the critical labors of Locke, Kant, Schopenhauer, and the modern physiologists had for ever banished from the minds of trained thinkers. Professor Fechner frankly avows that he flings down the gauntlet to all

philosophers of the day, be they idealists or materialists, Darwinists or anti-Darwinists, orthodox or rationalist. All these he throws together into one pot and labels them "Night philosophers," because, however great their differences in other things, in one point they all agree: they all teach that we know the external world not as in itself it is, but only as it appears to us through the modifying apparatus of our senses and brain, which themselves manufacture and project outwards the colors, odors, sounds, etc., that are supposed by ordinary people to be inherent as such in the objects themselves. This latter, naïve view of the people generally prevailed before the appearance of the critical school of philosophers; and now, with a strange perversity, Fechner comes forward, and, by a sort of metaphysical reversion or atavism, sets himself up as its champion. People are quite right, he insists, in maintaining that the sun emits actual light (instead of mere ether waves of unknown qualities), that the wings of a butterfly are gaudily colored, that flutes and violins give forth actual musical tones, whether there be any sentient organism to perceive these things or not. The sounds and colors exist, in the latter case, independently of sense-apparatus, nerve, and brain: they exist in the universal consciousness which comprehends as constituent parts the consciousness of each individual brain. The belief that a nervous system is necessary for the manifestation of a soul is an antiquated superstition.

Were such views advanced by an ambitious youth of speculative propensities they would hardly deserve notice. But Fechner is one of the leaders of the small band of scientific psychologists, and it may be worth while, therefore, briefly to examine the motives which must have led him off the official highway. Evidently his "second soul," the unchecked metaphysical instinct, has led him into mischief, like so many of his countrymen who try to persuade themselves and others that they can still fly, in spite of the fact that Kant has cut their speculative wings: hence all the recent attempts to establish the Absolute, the Will, the Unconscious, the Imagination, and even the odorous effluvia of organic compounds, as the essence of the soul and the fundamental "principle" of the universe. Fechner deserves credit in so far as he has not committed the unpardonable mistake of adding a new quack "essence" to this list of metaphysical narcotics, and also because he lacks the sublime impudence with which, *e. g.*, Hartmann endeavors to persuade weak-minded people that his "essence," the Unconscious, is a panacea for all human ignorance. His own "principle," as already stated, is a mere compound of previous conceptions, and he is honest enough to admit—and this is a great advance in honesty on his predecessors—that he cannot prove his notions, but only make them seem more or less probable. Yet even this he has not succeeded in, although he secures the sympathy of the uncritical reader for his theory that the world unperceived is identical with the world perceived, by means of two ingenious, though of course unconscious, sophisms, which it is the duty of the critic to expose.

This can be done in a few words. The "Day-view," says our author, has at all times been the firm conviction of the unsophisticated people, and he cannot but think that such a primitive and wholesale conviction must rest on a good basis. This is an optimistic argument which takes no account of the innate ignorance, so to say, of the mass of mankind. Up to the time of Copernicus all the world believed that the sun and the stars moved about the earth; and even nowadays, though we are all theoretically convinced of the contrary, it is not at all easy to throw off the old illusion and clearly realize that we are moving through boundless space at an amazing velocity, and on a little planet which, from a cosmic point of view, is a mere grain of sand. But while elementary astronomy is now part of every school-boy's education, the knowledge of the mechanism of our senses is of such recent origin that comparatively very few are aware as yet that what they suppose to be a direct and immediate perception of, say, a landscape, is, in fact, a most complex process of psychological chemistry, in which remembered impressions of touch and movement, associated with remembered impressions of sight, together with the fancy-work of the imagination, play as important, if not a more important part than the direct visual perception or sensation itself. This unconscious fusion of varied sensations and memories into one illusory picture makes it difficult for even a philosopher not to believe that his eyes are windows and his brain a mirror in which the external world is reflected just as in itself it is. The idealists of the last and present century tried very hard to eradicate this illusory belief; but none of their *a priori* arguments had the convincing force of the facts brought to light by modern physiology of the nervous system, which has shown in an unmistakable manner that our sense-perceptions are cerebral, or a product of the activity of the brain, and from there projected into the external world, which furnished only the raw material for the sense-per-

* 'Die Tagesansicht gegenüber der Nachtansicht.' Von G. T. Fechner. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel, 1879; New York: L. W. Schmidt.

ception, just as a sheep furnishes only the wool out of which our machinery weaves cloth of varied and complicated patterns.

And this brings us to Fechner's second sophism. He seems not to be aware that the epithet "Night philosopher" is an absolute misnomer, or what is known as a question-begging epithet. For these philosophers do not assert that the external world in itself is "dark," any more than they assert that it is light. They modestly confess that they know nothing whatsoever about it. A wave of ether enters the eye, passes the cornea, the lens, the aqueous and vitreous humors, passes through the ten layers of the retina, starts a current in the optic nerve which is conveyed to the brain; and not till it arrives there do we become conscious of it, as is known by experiment. But what we here become conscious of is evidently not the external agent, the unknown ether, but the nerve-current started by it. The resulting sensation is a joint product of the external stimulus, the complicated optical apparatus of the eye, the chemical constitution of the afferent nerve, and the reaction of a particular part of the brain. To say that a sensation is a real image of the external object which caused it, is, therefore, like asserting that a ready-made suit grew on a sheep's back.

What makes it so difficult for the average intellect to assimilate this critical view of the external world is partly our unfortunate habit of using the word light to designate both the subjective sensation and the objective ether wave, and partly the absurd assumption of pure idealists, that since we can only *know* the world as perceived, therefore it can only *exist* in so far as it is perceived. With Fechner, however, the case is different. His revolt against critical agnosticism is due to the wild desires of his second soul to go beyond the limits of experience, and find out what lies beyond the Chinese wall which Kant has spitefully built up in front of the unknowable, or the "Ding an Sich." As the ordinary methods of inference—induction and deduction—do not suffice for this purpose, he resorts to analogy, and by way of securing the necessary physiological organism for his planetary soul he compares rivers to the circulation of the blood, day and night to waking and sleep, ebb and tide to the pulsations of the heart, the green covering of the earth to the human skin, etc. Such things are quite interesting from a poetical point of view, but in modern exact philosophy analogies are unfortunately of no more value than bows and arrows would be in a war between France and Germany. And here we wish to make a suggestion which it may be worth while for metaphysicians to ponder. We propose that metaphysics be made a branch of belles-lettres, and all works of the kind classed under the head of fiction. This would establish an absolute boundary line between it and psychology as an exact science; and it would relieve metaphysicians of the disagreeable necessity of trying to persuade themselves and others that they really believe what they teach. They would then have a full right to their favorite maxim: "If facts do not agree with our theories, so much the worse for the facts." As works of fiction metaphysical treatises would have to pay a little more attention to language and form, and a new Hegel would hardly be read even by the proof-reader.

Difficile est satiram non scribere; but we are perfectly in earnest. The metaphysical instinct is ineradicable from the human mind. In the way in which it still manifests itself it is injurious, because it discredits all philosophy. When, for instance, a speculative pessimist in all soberness describes how the world is destined to come to an end by a general consensus of all mankind to cease to "will" at a given moment, one wonders whether he thinks all his readers are idiots, or whether he himself is not rather a fit subject for pathological treatment. Such tomfoolery in the last half of the nineteenth century is an insult to every rational being. But on the other hand the metaphysical craving to know ultimate truths and the essence of all things has been at all times a great stimulus to investigation of mind and nature, and its presence is usually a sign of a gifted mind. For, if anything can be worse than the logical jugglery of full-blown metaphysicians, it is the cow-like indifference to the countless mysteries surrounding us that characterizes many people. To such people everything seems self-evident, whereas in truth nothing is self-evident, not even the fact that a stone should fall downwards instead of upwards; and all our "knowledge" is therefore a mere classification of mysteries. Now, the value of metaphysical theories lies in the fact that a critical study of them first makes us aware of this fact, and therefore, as it were, awakens us from a dream in which everything, even the most improbable, seems self-evident, because we do not reason about it. For this reason it is irrational to condemn metaphysical speculation unconditionally, as is often done nowadays. Ingenious imaginary excursions from the known to the unknowable, described in poetical lan-

guage, would possess both an intellectual and an æsthetic value; and we shall welcome and commend all works of this kind as soon as we shall find them in the catalogues under the head of philosophical fiction.

It would be unjust if these remarks conveyed the idea that Fechner's work consists merely of speculation, and has, therefore, only an æsthetic value. Far from it. In spite of its weak backbone it is yet a strong book, which well deserves reading and even re-reading. We have never seen such a piquant and striking characterization of materialism, pessimism, pantheism, monadology, and dogma as is given on pp. 90, 91; and the chapters on teleology, causality, determinism and free-will, monism and dualism, pessimism and optimism, or the quantitative measurement of pleasure and pain in the world, contain a great deal that is new and suggestive. In the last chapter, which treats of modern spiritism (spirit-rapping), the ominous "second soul" again makes its appearance. Fechner believes in the reality of the manifestations attributed to the agency of invisible beings, and he advances several ingenious theories to account for certain anomalies in these manifestations. He belongs, we need hardly add, to the trio of distinguished Leipzig professors who, a year or two ago, so scandalized German society by entering the ranks of the spiritualists. In regard to Zöllner's notion of intelligent beings occupying a fourth dimension of space, whence they occasionally make their appearance to us, he has not yet made up his mind.

The Great Speeches and Orations of Daniel Webster. With an Essay on "Daniel Webster as a Master of English Style." By Edwin P. Whipple. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1879.)—No design could well be more commendable, either from a patriotic or a purely literary point of view, than that which the publishers profess in issuing this volume—the popularizing of Webster, namely. The ordinary reader knows of Webster's fame and the grounds of it in a general way, but the only means he has of becoming familiar with Webster is the Everett edition in six volumes, which is both too bulky and too expensive to be popular. An edition such as this, containing a selection of over forty of his best speeches, complete in one volume, with clear type and good paper, and published at a reasonable price, was certainly worth printing. The publishers have adorned it with two steel portraits of Webster, and have prefaced it with an essay on "Daniel Webster as a Master of English Style," by Mr. E. P. Whipple. Nothing in the contents of the volume needs special remark at the present time, of course, except this last; but this, since it is a popular exposition of Webster's oratory, prefacing a popular volume, and addressed to plain people, is worth attention. We wish we could add that it merits praise as well as attention, but any one unacquainted with Mr. Whipple's reputation might reasonably say that it is so ill written as to raise a presumption against the ability of the writer to write about Webster or style at all. It is almost comically unconvincing, for example, to find a writer writing of Webster's simplicity in a highly inflated style; of his power of "organizing" his orations, in an utterly disorganized essay; of his directness, with circumlocution; of his "sincerity of imagery," with far-fetched illustration and garrulous digression; of his compactness, with diffuseness. This carries its own antidote with it, in general, of course; but plain people, ignorant of Webster, cannot be presumed to see that Mr. Whipple has only a general and sentimental admiration for him, without any serious intellectual sympathy with him; that he conceives Webster in the loosest sort of way, much as a small boy conceives the "head of the school," and does not depict him with any firmness of outline whatever. Plain people are not even accustomed to reflect that commonplace has not only the disadvantage of being colorless, but the defect of becoming, on the most unexpected occasions, paradoxical.

Mr. Whipple begins with an account of Webster's school-days, and relates how he escaped the falseness of thought and feeling characteristic of school-boy "compositions" by cutting loose from all prevailing restraints and rules and expressing himself naturally in his own way. Two pages of his forty-three are devoted to this episode, and he uses it to show that the "sophomoric" style is bad and can be best avoided by being natural. Of course this is in the nature of commonplace, but, like commonplace, it loses sight of a vital qualification; and it is perhaps Mr. Whipple's fundamental error that in concentration upon the truth here involved he insensibly ignores the other truth, that it depends entirely upon what one's nature is whether he should be "natural" or not, and that one of the chief uses of education is to guide, restrain, and discipline "naturalness." Mr. Whipple's incurbed naturalness is the worst thing in his essay; it prevents his displaying any of the measure, proportion, and propriety essential to an essay on "style." When he has occasion to al-

lude to Milton, for example, he speaks of an "almost seraphic soul"; mentioning the New England phrase, "the neighbors," he says "Webster knew it in all the intense significance of its meaning"; a cross-examination by Webster "rivalled in mental torture everything martyrologists tell us of the physical agony endured by the victim of the inquisitor when roasted before slow fires or stretched upon the rack"; during the Dartmouth College speech "Chief-Justice Marshall's eyes were filled with tears, and the eyes of the other justices were suffused with a moisture similar to that which afflicted the eyes of the chief." Mr. Whipple speaks of earning the right to use words, and then uses them in this way: "Imagery makes palpable to the *bodily* eye the abstract thought seen only by the eye of the mind," and "the florid foolery of his early rhetorical style." He speaks of Webster as a poet, and says his imagery was of the same sort as that of the farmer who called a drought "God's flat iron," and that of a comparison of slowness to "cold molasses," which latter, he observes, "perfectly answers to Bacon's definition of imagination." It is probably his "naturalness," too, that is responsible for "He could not take a glass of wine without the trivial fact being announced all over the country as indisputable proof that he was a confirmed drunkard, though the remarkable characteristic of his speeches is their temperance"; and for this, which we are inclined to call the prize sentence of his essay: "He passed through life with his head enveloped 'in a cloud of poisonous flies,' and the head was the grandest-looking head that had ever been seen on the American continent." Mr. Whipple's literary instinct is never, indeed, particularly happy. He singles out Webster's use of "interesting" and "respectable" as parallel to Chaucer's use of "greenness," Barrow's of "rest," and Edwards's of "sweetness," merely because Webster uses them, and without suspicion that Webster's poetic sense is sometimes quite amiss. Indeed, he finds no blemish in his subject, and one feels that there is no trait of Webster's style which does not seem to him a beauty. Hence his treatise not only loses in reality on account of its lack of light and shade, but it loses in truthfulness. It is, in fact, a eulogy rather than a critique, and its criticism is only a semblance of criticism. It is, however, deliberate and detailed, and will pass as criticism with plain people who are unfamiliar with elementary text-books on rhetoric, and have no means of distinguishing between criticism and an employment of certain rhetorical terms. But a popular introduction to the writings of such a man as Webster ought surely to differ more widely than Mr. Whipple's differs from an unrevised essay by a student of Blair or Whately.

The Roman System of Provincial Administration, to the Accession of Constantine the Great. Being the Arnold Prize Essay for 1879. By W. T. Arnold, B.A., formerly Scholar of University College, Oxford. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879. 8vo, pp. 240.)—Mr. Arnold's essay upon the Roman provinces is an excellent discussion of this important topic. It consists of six chapters; the first is introductory, three are historical (devoted respectively to the Republic, the early Empire, and the later Empire), and two treat of Taxation and the Towns. All parts of the book are well written and scholarly, but the last half, covering less familiar ground, appears to us to have on the whole the most merit. It is not only comparatively new but very important ground, inasmuch as it is in the period of the later Empire, and especially in its financial and municipal systems, that the most important points of connection between ancient and modern institutions may be traced. We should, indeed, have been glad of even more elaboration here; a fuller statement of the distinctive features of the several provinces or groups of provinces, in view of the several nationalities which were afterwards built upon them, would have been very acceptable. But the limitation "to the accession of Constantine" cuts off many points of great interest.

Mr. Arnold has made good use of the labors of previous explorers. In this field, more than in any other, the materials are largely epigraphic, and the work is of such a nature that every new laborer must, in the fullest degree, enter into the labors of those who have gone before him. Marquardt is, of course, the authority upon whom he builds from first to last; besides him, Mommsen, Zumpt, and others; and he is evidently a careful student of inscriptions at first hand. We are surprised to see no use made of Emil Kuhn's *Entstehung der Städte des Alterthums*—a work which one would have supposed indispensable for the preparation of the chapter upon the Towns.

We do not know any English writer who has firmly grasped the notion of the Greek and Roman town—*πόλις*, *civitas*—in which the contrast

of *urbs* and *rus* is purely local and social, the *rus* being as integral a part of the *civitas* as the *urbs*, and the proprietors of the *rus* being dwellers in the *urbs*; for a clear statement of the institution we must go to writers like the German Kuhn or the French Coulanges. So that, while we cannot point out any real error in Mr. Arnold's account of the towns, it is yet felt to be inadequate. For example, in the valuable sketch of the towns existing in the several provinces, we find the statement (p. 205): "Pompey made out eleven towns in Pontus, and twelve in Bithynia; other places were villages." The statement, like most of those in this paragraph, is taken from Marquardt (vol. i. p. 198), whose expression is "*war . . . getheilt*"; but Mr. Arnold overlooks his previous expression (p. 192), "*welchen Pompeius in 11 Stadtgebiete theilte*." (The word used by Strabo is *διδίκε*.) The expression "made out" is, therefore, strangely inaccurate. Now, Kuhn gives nearly three pages (pp. 390-2) of commentary to this passage of Strabo, establishing in detail what the eleven cities were, so far as it is possible to determine them. And these eleven cities comprised the entire territory in question: they were not eleven cities in Pontus, and the rest villages; the villages were a part of the cities, and there were no "other places." Again, Kuhn's account of the establishment of cities in Gaul (pp. 434-453) would have been precisely to the point for Mr. Arnold's purposes.

We find a slip on page 71, where Publius Rutilius Rufus is called "governor" of the province of Asia; he was only *legatus* to Quintus Scaevola. On page 115 is the surprising statement that governorships were sometimes "given to centurions, or even to ordinary veterans." The references are far from supporting this. The centurions who "governed" the Frisii and Batavi were simply officers detailed to govern a district; the Frisians and Batavians were not *provinces*. And the "ordinary veteran" turns out to be Pomponius Flaccus, governor of Mesia, whom Tacitus (Ann. ii. 66) calls *veterem stipendiis* (referring to previous service in Mesia), but who had been consul two years before (A.D. 17). A misprint (p. 41) is 179 for 197, and (p. 175) *reign* for *resign*.

An excellent discussion of the condition of the subject countries, and the degree of their self-government, at the time of their conquest by Rome, is found in the first chapter; and the nature and limitations of their self-government under the Empire are admirably brought out in a paragraph (p. 120) ending with the words: "The weakness of those who have conquered and ruled with eminent success is to be sceptical with regard to the fitness of others to do a similar work; and a Roman governor would probably be as incredulous if you spoke to him of a genuine parliament at Lyons or Corduba as an Indian official would if you suggested a Hindu parliament at Delhi."

Upon the difficult subject of the origin of the *coloni* we should not accept Mr. Arnold's statement (p. 162) that the view suggested by Savigny (that they were derived from barbarians transplanted to the soil of the Empire) is unquestionably correct, except as to the way in which a portion of the class originated. And when he goes on to identify the *Baganda* with the *coloni* he is no doubt right; but it was not Savigny's *coloni*, but a totally different set of persons. The peasantry of Gaul were serfs, or, as he calls them, villeins—that is, *coloni*—even before Caesar's conquest.

Chapters three and four contain an excellent historical sketch of the condition of the provinces under the successive emperors; and the sketch of Diocletian (following mainly Preuss) is particularly full and instructive. We could call attention also to the summary of the epigraphical information about Britain on pages 133 and 134.

Life of Victor Emmanuel II., First King of Italy. By G. S. Godkin. In two volumes. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1879.)—The writer's admiration for the truly kingly qualities of Victor Emmanuel amounts almost to the loyalty of a subject, which an evidently long residence in Italy has fostered. The English audience whom she had in mind, and whom she frequently directly addresses, will find this sentiment not unnatural, and will also take kindly to her pronounced anti-papal if not to her equally decided anti-Mazzinian views. Sometimes the reader almost suspects that she may have intended to interest the young in the example of the *Ré Galantuomo*; but this comes rather from the simple and familiar tone of the narrative than from any disposition to keep out of sight the blemishes in his conduct. The chief defect of the book, which for the present takes the place of any critical biography in English, is in chronological distinctness. Of this as good an instance as any is chap. xxx., which embraces without either pause or transition the Ecumenical Council of 1867, the Barsanti incident (March 24, 1870), and the Franco-Prussian war. Finally, to the author's absence from

England may be attributed several printer's errors, such as *Gardie* for *Sardie*, *Carioli* for *Caioli*, etc.

The permanent value of this biography lies in its extracts from the chief Italian memoirs on the period under survey and in its translations of speeches from the throne, orders, letters, etc.; while its interest is secured by a good assortment of anecdotes, of which the following, from chap. xxxiii. (p. 217), is a sample:

"Just at the beginning of the war of 1859, Signor Plezza was appointed governor of Alessandria; but, on hearing that the Emperor of the French was expected to call there, begged to be excused on the plea that he was unfit to receive a foreign sovereign. Count Cavour said he had need of him in that post, and refused to cancel the appointment. Plezza then appealed to the King, saying that he understood nothing of etiquette, and could not represent his sovereign.

"Is it possible?" said Victor Emmanuel.

"It is true, your majesty; I never came to court but on public business, and I am quite ignorant of the etiquette necessary for such occasions."

"You understand absolutely nothing of etiquette?" asked the King again.

"Nothing, sire."

"Then, since it is so, give me your hand. You are entirely fitted to represent me, for neither did I ever understand etiquette."

Leaves from a Lawyer's Life, afloat and ashore. By Charles Cowley, Judge-Advocate S. A. B. Squadron. (Lowell: Penhallow Printing Company. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1879.)—Mr. Cowley, who served on the staff of Admiral Dahlgren, made it his custom, as he says in his preface, to keep a record of all important events which happened in the squadron under that officer's command. He also noted the events that had taken place in Admiral Dupont's time as they were related to him by eyewitnesses. This record he has made use of since his return to civil life

for the purpose of correcting the errors committed by historians of the war. These he has found to be numerous, and for future editions of the histories in question his corrections ought to be of value. His narrative of the events which took place under his eye is too dry to be interesting as literature, though it cannot fail to have some historical value in the manner just indicated. Of the attack of the Confederate rams on the Federal gunboats off Charleston (Jan. 31, 1863) he gives a very clear account.

* * Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Arnold (E.), <i>The Light of Asia: Poetry</i>	(Roberts Bros.) \$1 50
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Bailey (A.), <i>The Succession to the English Crown</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Beers (Ethel L.), <i>All Quiet along the Potomac: Poems</i>	(Porter & Coates) 1 75
Beely (A. H.), <i>The Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla</i>	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Benrimo (A.), <i>Vic: a Tale, swd.</i>	(Authors' Pub. Co.) 30
Berthel (E.), <i>The Prehistoric World: a Tale</i>	(Porter & Coates) 1 50
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Famous French Authors.	(R. Worthington) 1 75
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Leland (C. G.), <i>Abraham: Lincoln</i>	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Leypoldt (F.) and Jones (L. E.), <i>American Catalogue, Part 4, Robble, Z, swd.</i>	(A. C. Armstrong & Son)
Platt (Rev. W. H.), <i>After Death—What?</i>	(A. Roman & Co.)
Prentiss (G. L.), <i>Memoir of S. S. Prentiss, 2 vols.</i>	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 2 50
Rhodes (Rev. D. W.), <i>Creed and Creed</i>	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Rosseter (W.), <i>Illustrated Dictionary of Scientific Terms</i>	(Peter G. Thomson) 1 25
Scott (W. B.), <i>The Little Masters</i>	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
Shipley (Rev. O.), <i>Ritual of the Altar, 2d ed.</i>	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Sidgwick (A.) and Keep (R. P.), <i>Homer's Iliad, Books I, II, III.</i>	(J. W. Bouton) 1 00
Valentin (W. G.), <i>Twenty Lessons in Inorganic Chemistry</i>	(John Allyn) 1 00
Value of Life: a Reply to Mallock	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
Warren (S. M.), <i>Compendium of the Theological Writings of Emanuel Swedenborg</i>	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 3 00
Watson (W.), <i>European System of Instruction: Studio and Atelier</i>	(Boston)
Wordsworth (W.), <i>Poems selected by Matthew Arnold</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Young (J. R.), <i>Round the World with General Grant, Parts 6, 7, 8, swd.</i>	(Am. News Co.) 50
Zola (E.), <i>The Conquest of Plassans, swd.</i>	(T. B. Peterson & Broc.) 75

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